

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE meeting held at Harrisburg last week was nominally the Republican State Convention of Pennsylvania, but actually a demonstration for Matthew S. Quay. After endorsing the Chicago platform of last year, the Convention set about its business by passing two resolutions on the tremendous subject of Quay. The first of these dwells upon the "Pennsylvania leadership" of last year as the cause of the party's victory in the campaign. Not satisfied with this, another resolution follows immediately, giving particulars. "The Republicans of Pennsylvania," the platform continues, "claim especial recognition, for the reason that, in the hour of its extremity, they furnished to the national Republican organization a Chairman who, during all the anxious days of the recent national campaign, in coöperation with the honored representatives of other States, so controlled the forces at hand as to compel victory. The thanks of the Republicans of this Commonwealth are due and hereby tendered to the Hon. Matthew S. Quay for the honorable and masterful way in which he conducted that campaign." This, we think, is without precedent in our political history, as an example of arrogance in tone and blatherskite in composition, Mr. Quay not being the nominee of the Convention for any office, and therefore not properly the subject of the eulogy customarily bestowed upon candidates. The placing of these two resolutions ahead of the one which endorses the Administration of President Harrison was evidently not the result of accident. It had the clear design of affirming that Quay is the greater man of the two, and it authorizes Quay to write himself, as the Texas doorkeeper did, "a bigger man than old Grant."

That such a convention should endorse the Administration because it "seeks so to adjust the burdens of taxation that those persons and interests able to bear most shall bear most, and so that those able to bear least shall bear least," was to be expected. The theory and practice of representative government require and suppose that taxes shall be laid by the legislative branch, and that the executive shall not "adjust the burdens of taxation" at all. The present executive has had no opportunity as yet to advise Congress how such burdens should be adjusted. The Convention has, therefore, given its approval to a policy unknown to the Constitution or to any form of civilized government in the world. Nor was this move made by mistake. It was a commendation of the policy of increasing taxes by Treasury decision, and substituting that method of advancing private and special interests in place of acts of Congress. We look in vain in the platform for the con-

demnation of Trusts and "combines" which the Philadelphia *Press* urged upon the Convention. Nothing can be found in it which implies any dissatisfaction with any monopoly whatsoever. On the other hand, there is a resolution which "heartily commends the wise and friendly liberality shown by Commissioner Tanner to his brother soldiers," such as rerating the pension of a rich man, a Senator of the United States, and lifting \$4,000 cash from the public treasury into his pocket in a lump sum.

Four years ago the Ohio Republican platform declared that "the Republican party, which enacted the present Civil-Service Law, will faithfully maintain it and cheerfully aid in all needed amendments to give it full force"; that "it is committed to extend the law to all grades of service to which it is applicable," and that "ample appropriations should be made to enforce it in letter and spirit." This year the Ohio Republican platform contained no allusion to the subject of the Civil-Service Law. In like manner, four years ago the Pennsylvania Republican platform enumerated among "the live issues" "the establishment of a true system of civil service, which will give a fixed tenure of office, and no removal during the term of office except for adequate public cause"; at the same time arraigning the Democratic Administration for its "hypocritical avoidance of pledges touching the civil service." This year the Pennsylvania Republican platform contains no allusion to the subject of the civil service.

Elections in Kentucky had long been so terribly one-sided that nobody outside the State could take much interest in them, but two years ago the opposition developed unexpected strength, and cut down the lead of the Democratic candidate for Governor over his Republican rival to less than 17,000 votes. The only State office at issue this year was the Treasurership, and as it is an "off year," the Republicans entered the contest with unusual spirit, while the Democrats appeared to take little interest in the canvass. So apathetic, indeed, was the Democratic campaign that a fortnight ago the party managers seemed to be in a panic lest the Republicans might snatch a victory; but the result shows that there is little prospect of a political revolution in Kentucky, the latest returns indicating that the Democratic majority for Treasurer will rise to about 35,000.

The Philadelphia *Press* makes a serious blunder when it says, in explanation of this victory, that "Kentucky has the largest number of illiterates in proportion to its population of any State in the Union." The last census showed the proportion of persons ten years of age and upwards unable to read in Kentucky as but 22.2 per cent., while it was 24.1 per cent. in Texas, 27.7 per cent. in Tennessee, 28.8 per cent. in Arkansas, 34 per cent. in Virginia, 38 per cent.

in Florida, 38.3 per cent. in North Carolina, 41.9 per cent. in Mississippi, 42.8 per cent. in Georgia, 43.5 per cent. in Alabama, 45.8 per cent. in Louisiana, and 48.2 per cent. in South Carolina. Indeed, the only States in which slavery existed where the percentage of illiteracy in 1880 was less than in Kentucky were Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, and Missouri, in all of which the percentage of negroes is very small. Moreover, the proportion of illiterates in Kentucky has undoubtedly been diminished since 1880 by the development of the public-school system. The per-capita allotment from the State Treasury for this purpose has been carried up from 72 cents to \$2.15, and there has been, also, a steady growth of that "local supervision and interest" which, as President Harrison said in his speech on the Blair bill, in the Senate, on March 25, 1884, are the only things that "will bring these constituencies, that are now so backward in the race of education, abreast with other States." The growth of this local interest would have been even more rapid except for the hope of Federal aid, of which Gen. Harrison, in the same speech, said: "In my judgment there could be no worse policy than to throw, in a single year, into those States \$15,000,000 out of the national Treasury."

The latest issue of the *Valley Virginian*, published at Staunton, Va., appears to assure the defeat of Mahone's attempt to again seize control of the Old Dominion. The *Valley Virginian* is a newspaper of the highest character, conducted by Mr. S. M. Yost, one of the ablest and best members of the Republican party in the State. In a leading editorial article on "The Line of Duty," it says that "it is a Republican paper," that "it believes in the principles and policies of the Republican party," that "it will support its organization when it is dedicated to the maintenance of those principles," but that "it will not be the willing instrument of any faction, or the slavish apologist of methods which can have no other effect than to disintegrate and wreck the Republican party." In another article upon the "honorable compromise," as the recent "deal" ratified by the President is called by the Mahoneites, the *Valley Virginian* denounces "the arrangement which seems to have been consummated by which the full control of the patronage of the Government in Virginia is turned over to Gen. Mahone"; declares that "the President has been deceived in the promise that a full Republican vote can be secured for any ticket that may be nominated, and that the Republicans of Virginia will allow the bull ring to be placed in their noses, to be led wherever the bosses may direct"; and adds: "We believe we speak for 50,000 true, tried Republicans when we say they will not surrender their rights and their convictions at the command of any cabal or combine that would seek to prostitute the Republican organization to such base uses. They will

draw the line between the *Republican party* and the *Mahone faction*, and when the two conflict, they will support the former all the time, and place their seal of condemnation on the latter."

It is amazing that Northern Republicans should not see as clearly as a Southern Republican like Mr. Yost how fatally the party is discredited when a Republican Administration tries to make such a man as Mahone boss of a great State. Mahone is a worse man than Butler, but Massachusetts Republicans who considered their State disgraced by the elevation of Butler to its Governorship condoned, if they do not commend, the attempt to saddle Mahone upon Virginia through the prostitution of the civil service of the United States in that commonwealth. There is not a Northern Republican State which would stand such rule as Warmoth gave Louisiana and Clayton gave Arkansas, in the reconstruction era, and yet Northern Republicans do not protest when a Republican Administration turns over the patronage of those States to these discredited politicians. They even profess to wonder that Southern Democrats of character and property do not turn Republicans while the Mahones and the Warmoths and the Claytons personify Republicanism in the South.

The attention of farmers is directed to the unavailing effort of Secretary Rusk of the Department of Agriculture to secure from the Treasury Department the admission free of duty of potash salts "expressly used for manure," as provided in the tariff of 1883. The Secretary's letter on this subject contains a late decision by Judge Lacombe that such salts are entitled to free admission; but the Treasury refuses to accede to the decision until it shall have been passed upon by the Supreme Court. Meanwhile, somebody who is making potash salts in this country will be licensed to plunder the American tobacco-grower, and eventually the importers of the salts will recover the amount unlawfully taken from them. The judgment awarded by Judge Lacombe in the case before him was \$2,225.84. Interest on this sum is now running at 6 per cent.

The pressure upon the Treasury to levy a customs tax on railway cars engaged in transportation and entering the United States from a foreign country, has all along seemed to us as only a part of the protectionist "fad" which culminated in the election of Mr. Harrison. Of course, it is always open to Congress, by an appropriate law, to tax such cars on each entry. Secretary Manning suggested to the House Foreign Affairs Committee, in reply to inquiry respecting retaliation for Canadian treatment of our fishermen, that if Congress wished to be offensive against Canada, it could levy such a customs tax, but he did not intimate that the Treasury could levy the tax under existing legislation. That was the outcome of a subsequent condition of affairs in the Treasury, when, under Assistant-Secretary Maynard and Special-Agent Tichenor, there seemed to be no limit to the levy and increase of taxes

by Treasury order. That these cars are brought into the United States no one can deny, nor that the tariff law of 1883 covers railway cars. Secretary Windom concedes that when he warns the Detroit Collector that the "free importation of foreign-built railway cars" is not to be permitted. If foreign-built or foreign-owned railway cars, bringing merchandise into the country, are to be taxed, then why not foreign-built or foreign-owned vessels arriving at the port of New York? And, indeed, on the basis of the Vanderbilt-portrait decision, why not every vessel or car or horse and wagon, no matter where built or by whom owned?

Secretary Windom steers clear of the main question by saying that his predecessors have held that the cars are not taxable, because engaged in the international transportation of articles in bond, and Congress has authorized such bonding contrivances for the articles. He treats the cars as vehicles, or movable coverings for the bonded articles, and as the articles are bonded, so are the cars. He says nothing of mere passenger cars not bonded, but which are stopped on the frontier in order to levy and collect taxes on taxable articles therein. Free international traffic in such articles, free trade therein, is not permitted; and why are the cars untaxed? He abstains from discussing the question *de novo*, and yet, only a few days before, his Department had decided that, if an American-built and owned steamer on the lakes received repairs in Canadian waters not required by stress of weather, the repairs were dutiable when the steamer entered an American port. Really, what a queer thing our protective tariff is.

The flurry in Atlanta last week over the appointment by the Postmaster of a negro to a place in the office where he would come into constant association with a young white woman, threatened on Monday to develop into a storm which might involve the two races in open warfare. The ill-feeling had been aggravated by the shooting of a negro offender by a white policeman, and the excitement grew almost uncontrollable when it was announced that the negroes proposed to burn in effigy the white woman who resigned her place in the office rather than associate with the negro, in return for the burning in effigy by the whites of the Postmaster who appointed the negro. Cool-headed leaders among the whites, notably Gov. Gordon, succeeded in averting a collision, although the ugly feeling which has been aroused will not easily subside. The whole performance appears ridiculous to outsiders. Negroes have been employed in other positions in the Atlanta Post-office without anybody's making objection, and in the present case it would seem to be a purely personal matter for the woman affected to settle herself. She settled it by resignation; but another white woman was readily found who was glad to accept the position—a lady who, the *Constitution* says, is the widow of a school principal; and "is well known throughout the city." So far as the Postmaster is concerned, he ap-

pears simply to have discharged a duty, under the Civil-Service Law, as to which he had no discretion.

The Committee on World's-Fair finance appointed by the Mayor is entirely competent to deal with the question before it if the members take hold of the subject in the same spirit that they would undertake the financing of a new railroad or any great industrial enterprise. They cannot have failed to observe the very general comment of the press in other cities, that there is no public spirit in New York. The idea is commonly entertained that either Chicago or St. Louis can raise more money for any purpose when local pride is aroused than New York can. Sarcastic inquiries are everywhere made concerning the state of the Grant Monument Fund and the Centennial Arch Fund, and it is assumed that because a million dollars have not been contributed to the one and a hundred thousand dollars to the other, New York has no public spirit and no local pride. The fact is forgotten, perhaps, that the Washington National Monument, a commemorative enterprise in which the whole nation was equally interested, lingered thirty years, although a very industrious committee had it in charge, and was finally finished by an appropriation from the public treasury, and would not have been finished in any other way to this day, if ever. The Grant Monument Committee laid out too large a programme for voluntary effort. New York gives very large sums of money every year to charitable purposes. Her contributions to the sufferers by the Johnstown flood and the Chicago fire were in proportion to her resources. Nobody has ever found fault with her for the smallness of her donations to the afflicted, either within or without her own precincts. But she has not been very liberal in the way of monuments, nor has any other city, nor have the American people in general distinguished themselves in this way. Even the monuments to Lincoln and Douglas, at Springfield and Chicago, were built by public appropriations of the State, and the fine bronze statue of Lincoln at Chicago was the gift of a single citizen.

The new schism in the Single-Tax party is not made exactly intelligible in the last number of Henry George's paper. The Rev. Pentecost, in the *Twentieth Century* (schismatic), asked Mr. George, immediately on his return from Europe, nine questions *seriatim*. He wanted to know, first, whether Mr. George "considers that the object of the *Standard*, and of all those who are working for emancipation, should be the enforcement of a great religious truth, or a mere readjustment of taxation, and nothing more." Also, whether he agrees with one of his fellow-editors in thinking "that the emancipation movement should be lifted 'out of the howling-dervish stage of emotional insanity, into the reign of common sense and practical action'"—the "howling-dervish stage of emotional insanity" being a sarcastic phrase intended to be descriptive of Mr. Pentecost and his supporters. Also, whether he "approves of the editorial declarations of the *Standard* that

'the right of private property in land is not the present practical question in connection with the single tax.'" Also, several other pointed interrogatories, all implying that Mr. George is sheering away from his text and abandoning his flock to the wolves. If so, the Rev. Pentecost stands ready to become their shepherd, and has prepared himself for that function by procuring lists of a number of Mr. George's Single-Tax clubs and sending specimen copies of his own paper to them. This method of preserving the flock has, however, been stopped by orders, issued by Mr. George as soon as he arrived, not to allow Mr. Pentecost to have access to the lists.

Two different organizations of Socialists, the Possibilists and the Marxists, have just held separate congresses in Paris. Some attempts were made to fuse the two bodies, but without success. It is a little hard to make out what great difference exists between the two. Certainly none appears great enough to keep them long apart. Both agree in their main end and aim, which is the appropriation by society at large of the capital now existing in private hands. Both desire a communism—or "collectivism," as their word is—and their only difference seems to be as to the agent who shall have charge of the public goods and be in the possession of power. The Marxists would prefer a collectivism organized by the State, while the Possibilists look rather to municipal collectivism. Doubtless, if at any time, in consequence of a revolution, let us say, or of some other social upheaval, either party saw a chance of success, the other party would at once join it and march under its banners into the Promised Land.

Everybody who has—as so many have—found pleasure and profit in Prof. Mahaffy's literary and historical work, will be pained and disappointed by his treating the American public, almost as soon as he landed, to a sharp lecture on the impropriety of differing from him on one of the most burning, notorious, and much thrashed questions of British politics. It appears that those who do not agree with him about Irish Home Rule have had "their minds poisoned from Ireland by agents of the non-Unionists"; that they cannot understand it "unless they are deep scholars," and that they are ignorant of the doctrines and history of the Catholic Church, of which he was pleased to give them a brief sketch. Considering that nearly half the English people, including some of their ablest statesmen and scholars, and a majority of the Scotch, dissent from the Professor on this topic, it is difficult to know what name to give to this rebuke of his to Americans. We shall only call it at present an indiscretion which we hope he will not repeat. He will be cordially welcomed here as a clergyman and a scholar, but nobody looked for him as a party politician, or expected his political opinions to have the smallest value. That he is rather unfit to discuss questions of government publicly, his disquisition on the

relations of Utah and the Southern States to the Union showed clearly, and we hope his Chautauquan friends will turn his attention into some more suitable field.

The Canadians are plunged into a fierce religious controversy, which may have important political results, by the restoration to the Jesuits by the Quebec Legislature of the property which was confiscated when they were expelled from the country in 1782. It is estimated at \$300,000 now, and when accompanied, as it is or is to be, by the incorporation of the Order in Canada, it is no small gain for the Church. The fund, of course, will be at the absolute disposition of the Pope. The transaction has created a tremendous uproar among the Protestants of the other provinces of the Dominion, and they are furious with the Governor-General for allowing the act to go into force without vetoing it or "disallowing" it, as the phrase is, which he is empowered to do under the Canadian Constitution. On what ground he could have vetoed it, it is, however, hard to see. The property in question lies within the Province of Quebec. It is confessedly at the disposal of the provincial Legislature, and the only good objection to its restoration is a moral and not a legal one—namely, that the Jesuits are a bad organization, which ought not to be encouraged. It is very difficult in our day to put this argument into legal shape. The Jesuits' plea is, that the confiscation of their property was simple robbery accomplished with the strong hand, and that its restoration is restitution and not simple donation. A good many Canadians think such a thing could not be done in the United States; but it could. Nothing prevents the establishment of the Catholic Church in New York, with rich endowments from the State Treasury, but the determination of the majority of the people of the State not to permit anything of the sort. The trouble in Quebec is, that the majority is Catholic, pious, and prolific; and thinks the Jesuits estimable and ill-used men; and how this difficulty is to be got over in our day it is hard to see. It will, however, make a good many Americans think twice before letting Quebec into the Union.

A sale by auction was made in London on July 17 which in its way is as noteworthy as the sale of Millet's picture. The property disposed of was "one entire and undivided share in the Adventurer's Moiety of the estates and interests of the New River." The "Adventurer" was Hugh Myddelton, the projector of the New River, and this is the first share of that property which has been sold since the work was completed in the year 1613. The value of a share at that date was £100. There were seventy-two shares in all; half were taken by the King and half went to Sir Hugh, who was knighted by James I. in recognition of his work. The King's shares were afterwards sold by Charles I. to the second Sir Hugh Myddelton for a yearly payment to the crown of £500 in perpetuity. The net return on these 36 shares was last year £93,960, though the no-

minial capital of the company, as shown by Parliamentary returns, is only about three and a-half millions. The company possesses the exclusive right of supplying water to all the northern suburbs of London, to the whole of the city of London and part of Westminster, to several wealthy parishes in the West End, and to parts of Middlesex and Hertfordshire. Valuable estates also belong to it, the chief of which, the Myddelton Square property, consists of fifty acres in the very heart of London. The New River aqueduct was an object of public interest and curiosity long after it was completed. Evelyn notes in his diary a visit to it in the year 1686. The share that was sold the other day brought £122,800.

The *Times* on Saturday had an amusing letter about a certain class of American travellers in Europe, of whom the number has, under the influence of Cook's tours and the growth of wealth, or rather the spread of wealth, increased enormously during the past ten years. They pass over the European Continent no longer as single spies, but in heavy battalions, sometimes "personally conducted," in squadrons of 50 or 100, by one of Cook's captains, but oftener still in helpless little family or neighborhood groups, going they know not where to see they know not what. They are the only foreigners who now penetrate Italy during the summer months, in happy indifference to heat and malaria, but they swarm everywhere. As a general rule, one might search them in vain for the smallest knowledge not only of foreign languages or laws, manners or customs, but of history, of geography, of art, of literature, of antiquities, of any of the things which are absolutely necessary to make European travel anything more than a change of air and scene and a heavy expenditure of cash. The guide-books, even, do little for them, because every guide-book assumes a certain amount of knowledge in the above fields. The two things, as a general rule, which impress them most are the spectacle of women working in the fields and the absence of baggage-checks. What plagues and bewilders them most is the weighing of their trunks at the railroad stations, and the tedious service of dinner in courses at the tables d'hôte. It is not surprising that under these circumstances the elders at least soon get tired and homesick, and that all love to sit down and talk about "Jim Smith and Bill Jones at home." There is a pathetic story, which we believe to be authentic, of a certain general from Maine who, "doing" Europe in company with his wife and daughters a few years ago, met at the great door of St. Peter's at Rome a friend who happened to have about him a copy of Boutelle's *Bangor Whig*, which he offered him, and which came to the General, weary with the Eternal City, as manna in the wilderness. He seized it, sat down on the steps to peruse it, and let his "women-folk" inspect St. Peter's alone—probably the highest compliment the brave Boutelle, or, indeed, any other American journalist, has ever received.

THE BLACK-DIAMOND SEIZURE.

THE cable despatch received by the Montreal *Gazette* stating that "the imperial authorities have decided that British rights in Behring Sea must be protected from outrage," is probably authentic. We so consider it because it represents the sort of decision we should come to in a parallel case. Reluctant as Great Britain is, and must be, to have any difficulty with us, there are limits beyond which she cannot be pushed. The seizure of one's vessels on the high seas is very provoking to national pride. One such seizure may be regarded as accidental and unauthorized, but if followed by another and another and another, a state of public feeling may be excited which no Government can cope with. The Behring Sea controversy is in that critical state where both Governments are at the mercy of chance. A very little spilling of blood, perhaps only accidental, might bring on a deadly conflict. It is important, therefore, to know where we stand, and what our reasons are for being in danger of embroilment with our next of kin.

In the first place, let us dismiss the idea that England will allow (any more than we would) any commercial gain to outweigh the national honor. We have been told over and over again in the past two weeks that she is just as much interested in protecting the seal-fishery as we are; that if we catch the seals, the skins all go to London to be tanned, and sold, and distributed to the world; that consequently she would lose as much as we should by the extermination of the race at the hands of the "pirates." What does all this imply? That any great nation is going to allow others to decide that her subjects are pirates when they are prosecuting on the high seas under her flag a trade which she recognizes as lawful, merely because a tannery is making money? The conception is too absurd.

That England did assent to our suggestion for international policing of Behring Sea, with the express purpose of preserving the seals from destruction, is evidence of her good will, but by no means signifies her assent to our assumption of exclusive police jurisdiction in those waters. On the contrary, it presupposes that we, having put forward the idea of joint action, will stay our hand until it is carried into effect, no delay having been interposed by her meanwhile.

Why were these peaceful and proper negotiations broken off? The diplomatic correspondence does not show, but, perhaps, when the later volume, now in the Government Printing Office, comes out, we may know more. In the absence of better information, it is a fair inference that the political deadlock of the last two years frustrated this intended treaty, as it did the Fishery Treaty, the Extradition Treaty, the Chinese Treaty, and everything else that might have reflected credit upon Mr. Cleveland's Administration. The Senate was determined to reject anything that would have that political effect. Its Committee on Foreign Relations resolved, for example, that the fishery question was not a fit subject for any treaty or any negotiation, and the Senate refused to

amend the treaty that was negotiated in any way whatsoever, or to say in what way it might be made satisfactory.

We allude to these things not in the way of reproach. That is all burnt powder. What we now infer is, that the impossibility of doing anything in the foreign department by reason of the political deadlock was the reason why a very promising beginning for the settlement of the Behring Sea question came to no conclusion at all, either satisfactory or otherwise. It is not a strained inference, also, that the present Administration has been so engrossed in the task of peddling out the offices that it could not find time to take up the threads of the suspended negotiation, but was compelled to give a general order respecting Behring Sea, and then trust to luck. Probably it is a sense of laches that inspires high officers of the Government, now that trouble is impending, to apply the term "pirates" to people who are fishing for seals, although if they were taking whales or walrus in the same waters, they would be very respectable persons.

It should be borne in mind that Russia has larger interests in those waters than England has, and that her coöperation is more needful. The seal in his wanderings does not observe the line drawn north and south from Behring Strait, midway between Alton and Copper Islands, nor the line drawn east and west along the Aleutian Islands. He is now on one side and now on the other of both lines. Russia, like ourselves, has seal-breeding islands, from which she derives a revenue. She is interested like ourselves in preserving the race from extermination. To suppose that the seal can be preserved by catching "pirates" on one side of an imaginary line and leaving them free on the other side is ridiculous. Now, Russia was an active party to the negotiation for international protection of the seal. She wanted to have the line of immunity, or non-fishing, drawn considerably south of the Aleutian group, and Mr. Bayard acquiesced in this. But here, as we know, the negotiation ended. It is due to Russia as well as to Great Britain, that it should be resumed on the original lines, and that meanwhile no chance should be left open for the embroilment of the two nations in war or serious estrangement.

THE NEW YORK PAVEMENTS.

PROF. J. S. NEWBERRY, of the Columbia College School of Mines, has been making a careful examination of the different kinds of street pavement in use in some of the principal European cities, and has thrown the result of his observations into a paper in the *School of Mines Quarterly* on "The Street Pavements of New York." These pavements are, notoriously, so bad that they have to a large extent driven out of use every mode of transportation for persons except the railways. The number even of the rich who keep carriages for pleasure either diminishes steadily, or does not increase in proportion to population, so great is the wear and tear of horses and vehicles caused by the condition of the roadway. For invalids—and especially for women invalids—

carriage exercise except in the Park has become an impossibility; and to use the Park with comfort or safety they have, consequently, to live very near it. Bad pavements, too, mean insufficient sweeping and general indifference to appearances. The use of the streets to keep wagons in, and to pile up ashes and garbage in, would not be tolerated very long in a well-paved city. From all this, too, the poor are the worst sufferers. Curiously enough, considering how democratic the government is, the rich secure all the good paving and good sweeping there is. It is the quarters of the poor which are most neglected.

It is, of course, only with the material conditions of good city pavement that Prof. Newberry, as a scientific man, occupies himself. He says that "in New York a greater variety of excellent materials for street pavements can be obtained, and at a cheaper rate, than any city in the world," notably the bluestone, which is found in inexhaustible quantities at various points along the Hudson, and granite, which can be found cheap and good in the Highlands about West Point. This latter has been used in the pavement of Fifth Avenue, which he calls "really good," but says it would have been better if "the blocks had been thinner and the roadbed had been more carefully prepared." In fact, this failure to prepare the substratum properly for the pavement is one great cause, perhaps the greatest, of the bad condition of our streets. In his account of the asphalt pavement in London and elsewhere, he touches on another cause, perhaps as powerful as any—the reluctance of Americans to make any provision for the maintenance and repair of streets and roads after they have been once put in order:

"The result of the experience of the last ten years has clearly shown that the pavement made with the Trinidad asphalt is equal to any in the world, and superior to any other kind of pavement in use. Its excellences—cleanliness, silence, and salubrity—are so apparent that no argument is now needed to enforce them. To these may be added, and placed first in the list, *economy*; for it costs as little and lasts as long as any other good pavement, and is much less trying to horses, vehicles, and human nerves. It is rapidly growing in favor, and it is not too much to say that it is the pavement of the future, and is destined in most localities to supersede all other kinds.

"In a recent visit to Washington I found some of the streets in a bad condition. Even on Fourteenth Street, in front of the Treasury Building, the asphalt pavement is full of holes, and the condition of this great thoroughfare has led to an opinion which I found quite prevalent, that asphalt was only adapted to streets where the traffic was not great and the vehicles were light. This is a mistake, however. There is no street in America or elsewhere in the world that has as much traffic as Cheapside, London, and among the vehicles which pass through it are omnibuses, loaded with passengers inside and on top, carts of all descriptions, and, heaviest of all, the trucks of the great brewers with their enormous horses and tons of ale and porter. And yet Cheapside is paved with asphalt and is as smooth as a house-floor. The secret of its perfection is the thorough manner in which the pavement is laid and the incessant care given to it. In nothing is the axiom truer than in the asphalt pavements, 'that a stitch in time saves nine.' The material has little hardness, and if, from irregular settling of the roadbed or local violence, a break occurs, the passing wheels rapidly shear off the sides of the hole, and it soon assumes formidable dimensions. In London this is prevented by constant watchfulness; persons are employed to traverse the street with a light repairing outfit, and wher-

ever a defect is observed, this is patched at once, and so effectually that the spot cannot be distinguished. The contractors who lay the pavements agree to keep them in order for fifteen years at a price which does not average more than a few cents a square yard.

"Our people seem to think that no pavement is a good one unless when once laid it will for ever take care of itself; but there is no such pavement. Even our rough stone roadways would pay excellent interest on the expenditure necessary for constant inspection and repairs promptly made when needed.

"One great difficulty stands in the way of the improvement of the pavements in the city of New York, and that is the frequency with which they are torn up for the purpose of laying new lines of gas, water, or steam pipes, or for the repair of such pipes when broken or frozen. The depth to which frost penetrates the ground in our severe winters seems to make it necessary that our pavements, as at present laid, should be frequently torn up, and until more care is given to the removal and replacement of the pavement it is impossible that we should have smooth roadways. This evil could have been in a large degree obviated by sinking the pipes beyond the reach of the frost, but, from the connections already made, this would now be a matter of extreme difficulty, and it is even probable that we can never have a satisfactory system of paving until commodious subways shall be constructed to receive all the pipes, and where they may be accessible without tearing up the streets. In the new streets opened in our rapidly growing cities the construction of such subways is possible, and would prove not only a great convenience to the population, but a substantial economy. In the older streets the cost and inconvenience would be much greater, but the difficulty is not here insurmountable, and the benefits would far more than compensate for the cost."

Prof. Newberry's conclusions about asphalt are reached after an examination of the pavements of London, Paris, Brussels, and Berlin, in all of which stone and wood are also in use and have been thoroughly tried.

The greatest of all obstacles to good pavement in New York, however, Prof. Newberry does not mention, because it does not come within the province of the civil engineer; we mean what is called "politics." And yet, without the mention of this, all comparisons of our pavements with those of London, or Paris, or Berlin, must be misleading. If, for instance, a German or Frenchman were to come to the conclusion that our streets were in their present condition because we were ignorant of the merits of different kinds of paving, or had among us no experts competent to do such work in the best manner, he would make a great mistake. Our difficulty lies in the fact that the men who govern the city are not selected for their fitness for their special duties, and do not give their minds, when a great public work is undertaken, to anything but the advantage to be got out of the spending of the money for their own party. The public mind, too, has been so debauched by the spoils system that people are not shocked when they see an expert like Newton turned out to make way for a politician like Gilroy. The spoils system is fatal to efficiency or honesty in the execution of all public improvements, because it is concerned always in the filling of places, and not in the least with the quality of the result.

THE MAYBRICK CASE.

THE report from Bar Harbor that "neither President Harrison nor Mr. Blaine will consent to talk for publication on the subject of Mrs. Maybrick's fate" is probably true; but

the remark which the reporter adds, that, "as Mrs. Maybrick lost her American nationality and became an Englishwoman when she married her late husband, it is difficult to see in what manner the United States Government could interfere in her behalf," is another and somewhat amusing illustration of the way in which, as the country grows, the knowledge of law, which used to be so common, seems to decline. The belief of many Republican editors that President Harrison possessed and would exercise some sort of dictatorial powers towards the Southern States, the belief of the Republican Convention of Pennsylvania that the Executive is charged with the duty of "adjusting the burden of taxation" with reference to the needs of the taxpayer, and that "the honest collection and honest disbursement of the proceeds of public taxation" are a discretionary work which the Administration is entitled to praise even for "proposing," and the confessed ignorance of the editor of so prominent a paper as the *Indianapolis Journal* that there exists any tribunal for the interpretation of the Federal Constitution—the Supreme Court being the most conspicuous feature in the American system of government—all these things are striking signs of the decay, even among politicians, of a knowledge of the machinery of their own government. Thirty years ago mistakes of this sort, when they appeared in the *Saturday Review*—as they often did—used to excite merriment here, but the number of those who would see the fun of them has sadly fallen off.

Somewhat similar ignorance seems widely prevalent among another class touching the duty of the Government towards Americans arraigned for criminal offences, before foreign tribunals, in civilized countries. There is lurking in many minds a vague notion that our Government possesses the power of revising, and if need be, of annulling, the judgments of such tribunals in the case of American citizens, and this notion, it must be admitted, got some countenance from the extraordinary conduct of Congress in the case of O'Donnell, who was convicted and executed for the murder of Carey the informer. There was no doubt of his guilt or of the fairness of his trial, but it seemed to many as if the sentence ought not to have been carried out without an examination and approval of the proceedings by our Secretary of State. The same question was raised in the Lamson case, but with less success. Lord Salisbury gave a certain sanction to such agitations by asking the Governor of Missouri to postpone the execution of Maxwell until some sort of fresh appeal could be sent to him from England.

It ought to be known even in primary schools that when an American commits murder or robbery in any foreign country of Christendom, the power of interference possessed by our Government is limited to seeing that he is brought to a speedy trial, that he is allowed full communication with his counsel and friends, that the trial is fairly conducted according to the procedure of the country, that the punishment is not cruel or

unusual, and that confession is not extorted by any species of torture or persecution. This is doubly true with regard to offences committed in England, whose criminal jurisprudence and procedure are exactly like our own. We have no more right of interference with English criminal trials than England has with ours. It makes no difference whatever in Mrs. Maybrick's case whether she had or had not lost her nationality. No nationality protects any man or woman against the legal consequences of the commission of a crime on foreign soil. There is no appeal from the verdict of a British jury or the decision of a British judge, either to President Harrison or Secretary Blaine, or to Quay or Wanamaker, any more than from the verdict of an American jury and the decision of an American judge to Lord Salisbury, Mr. Matthews, Chamberlain or Randolph Churchill. If Judge Stephen has committed errors either in his rulings on the evidence or in his charge to the jury, they will be examined in the British Court of Appeal. If the verdict of the jury has been plainly given against the evidence, either it will be set aside or the prisoner will be pardoned by the Home Secretary.

The popular uproar in Liverpool is undoubtedly largely due to the unpopularity of Judge Stephen, and to the hard, uncompromising way in which he presents his arguments. Almost any other judge on the English bench might doubtless have charged as strongly against the prisoner as he did without creating so much excitement. It is not uncommon for an English judge to charge against a prisoner, provided he does not twist or ignore evidence in doing so. He has not done more in this case than Lord Campbell did in the case of Palmer, whom, it is part of the current gossip of the day, the Judge was determined to hang from the outset, so sure was he of his guilt. If, as appears to be now maintained, the opinion of the spectators in the court-room and the populace of Liverpool ought to weigh more with the Government than the opinion of the judge and the verdict of the jury, the inference would appear to be unavoidable that cases of this kind ought to be tried, in Athenian fashion, by a public meeting, and the verdict taken by a vote, on the Australian system. At this distance the presumption of Mrs. Maybrick's guilt appears to be overwhelmingly strong. Her argument that she would not have been found guilty if she had not had a lover, sounds very like a plea that the desire for the victim's money, as in Palmer's case, ought not to be admitted as corroborative proof. The first and main question in all criminal cases is the question of motive. No sane person is supposed to commit a deliberate murder for fun.

THE ANNUAL WAR ALARM.

THE annual discussion of the probabilities of "a general European war" has just taken place in England—the only country in which such a discussion can take place with any frankness. The reasons for thinking that such a war is probable, and which furnish

the journalists with a good many topics, are about the same from year to year. There is in the first place Turkey, which is always in danger of breaking up; there is Greece, which is always eager to enlarge her borders by seizing Macedonia; there is Bulgaria, which wants Rumelia, and Serbia which wants a piece of Bulgaria; there is Russia, which wants to absorb or control both Rumania, Serbia, and Bulgaria, and kick Austria out of the Panslavic region.

Then there is Italy, which wants to take away the Canton of Ticino from Switzerland, and a bit of Dalmatia from Austria. There is France, which wants to get at Germany, and to get the English out of Egypt, and have more colonies than she can afford to settle. There is Germany, which is determined that France shall not catch her unprepared, and also to have as many colonies as Great Britain has. Though last, not least, all the first-class Powers except England—viz., France, Germany, Austria, Russia, and Italy—have standing armies so large as to constitute an almost overwhelming burden on industry and to increase greatly the tide of emigration.

It is easy to see what an enormous number of topics such a situation affords, and what an excellent showing any one may make out of them for the view that we are on the eve of one of the most terrible conflicts the world has seen since the fall of the Roman Empire. Nevertheless it contains, we repeat, certain guarantees of peace, for the present at least, of extraordinary strength. One of them is the size of the modern armies. There is a popular view that the size of these armies tempts governments to go to war. We hold, on the contrary, that every government which possesses them shrinks from putting them in the field, partly owing to fear of the effect on the national industry and finance, and partly to the very natural doubt whether it has generals fit to handle them. A bad general at the head of a small army is a comparatively harmless person; a bad general at the head of a million of men may prove a monster of mischief. The great armies of the Napoleonic period were created by generals who had slowly learned to use them in active service. The armies now in existence, Moltke having retired, would be led by men who may possibly be geniuses, but may also be veritable dunderheads. Every government feels this and puts off the hour of trial accordingly. Moreover, the absurdity of the notion that permanent peace can be secured by one great fight is becoming clearer to the European mind. On the contrary, every great fight sows the seeds of future quarrels, because the victor is sure to seize something with a "mailed hand" which the vanquished determines to wrest from him as soon as he is able. Therefore people say, with much wisdom, that terrible as is the burden of a great army in time of peace, war would make it twice as terrible.

The Franco-German war was due to the ignorance of the French, both about their own military resources and those of their adversary. That ignorance exists no longer. Each side knows what the other can do. Moreover, the material conditions of a cam-

paign between these two adversaries have greatly changed since 1870. The French army has been completely reorganized and much increased, but Metz has become absolutely impregnable. No hostile force can now get within nineteen miles of the old Vauban fortress which the Germans invested. On the other hand, all the ground round Paris which the Germans occupied in 1870, has been thoroughly fortified. In fact, it is estimated that the French have spent on the new defences of the city the enormous sum of \$675,000,000. The outer circle is now seventy-five miles long, and on the north and south side is an entrenched camp capable of holding 150,000 men. When the works now in progress are completed, the circle will be ninety miles long. The difference this will make in the next war is obvious.

If we add to the uncertainties thus created the absolute ignorance in which the world now lives as to the results of a great naval war, with the new iron-clads and torpedoes, we have abundant reason for believing that there are more signs of war in the newspapers than in the war offices.

THE SWISS ITALIANS.

THE internal politics of Switzerland have an interest for Americans, even when intrinsically unimportant, in that they afford an opportunity of observing the working of political machinery in most respects like ours, on matters similar to those which have figured in our politics, or may do so hereafter. Indeed, the recent agitation in the canton of Ticino, and the Federal interference therein, recall vividly the Reconstruction period in the Southern States, though the usurpation of power by the central Government, with us checked by the Supreme Court, appears in Switzerland to have ridden triumphantly over the rights of the States. The disregard by the Swiss executive of the letter, if not the spirit, of the Constitution was as complete as that which occurred during the "conflict period" of 1864-5 in Prussia; but as the majority in both houses of the Swiss Parliament is of the same party as the executive, it naturally did not wish to take any action, like the bill of indemnity passed by the Prussian houses after 1866, which would imply recognition of a violation of the organic law.

The canton of Ticino, whose affairs have led to this amendment of the Constitution by legislative decision, is the only one in which Italian is the prevailing language, and, though long connected with the German cantons in a territorial relation, is the youngest of the cantons to enjoy the rights of statehood. It was abominably misgoverned during the last century—so much so, according to the account of the abuses common while Bonstetten was Governor, as related in his entertaining letters, that relatively, if not positively, the exactions of a proconsul were far exceeded. Partly from this cause, and partly from the necessary poverty of the people, it is one of the most backward districts of Europe, not only in political and religious enlightenment, but in the respect of material progress. Most

of the "Italian" barbers and organ-grinders in foreign countries, not to mention great numbers of agricultural laborers who appear annually in the adjoining parts of France and Germany, attest at once the poverty of the population and their fondness for their native land, since all of them who are able to save anything return sooner or later.

Though the canton boasts of a "unity of faith" second only to that of Tyrol, there has long been a strong opposition to the clerical party, the lawyers being as active and devoted on the "Radical" side as the priests and wealthy class are on theirs. And though it is long since there has been a change of administration, yet the parties are so evenly balanced that every election is the occasion of violent agitation, and the colonization of a few hundred voters would at any time change the result—a fact of importance in view of the character of the emigration from the district. It has long been alleged by the Radicals that their opponents "colonized" in a quiet way, in spite of a law, passed with the assent of both parties, declaring non-residents not entitled to the suffrage. For the election which was held the 3d of last March the Radicals determined to do on a large scale what their opponents were said to have done on a small one. In February the newspapers announced that one of the Radical leaders was in Paris arranging for the return of a large number of natives whose domicile was in France, and 900 are said to have appeared in answer to the summons. They were prepared to assert their claims by arms, and the authorities were equally prepared to resist them. It was at this point that the Federal Government began to act.

Now, the Swiss Constitution, though amended in the direction of centralization in 1874, still retains provisions, apparently copied from that of the United States, guaranteeing the rights of the cantons, and asserting that all rights not in terms given to the Federal power are reserved to them. The Sixteenth Article also provides that "when internal disturbances exist, or when danger from another canton is threatened, the Government of a canton shall immediately inform the Federal Council [*i. e.*, the Executive], in order that the latter, so far as its powers extend, may take proper measures, or summon the Parliament. . . . If the cantonal Government is unable to call for help, the Federal Government may act on its own initiative, and if the security of the country at large is in danger, it shall do so." But in the Ticino affair, as is shown by Dr. Vogt, himself a Liberal, in his moderately worded pamphlet on the "Tessiner Frage," and as has been urged vehemently by the Conservative press, order was not disturbed—there merely was danger that it might be; the cantonal Government did not ask for aid, but, confident in its ability to put down any rising, protested against Federal interference; and there was no pretence that either of the other contingencies had arisen. In fact, not only was no blood spilt, but, in spite of the attempted colonization and the moral support given by the Federal authorities, not only through the occupation of the canton by troops, but also through a written protest to the

cantonal Government against the non-resident law, the Opposition was again unsuccessful. The whole importance of the incident, therefore, lies in the establishment of a constitutional precedent, in that the executive disregarded the written law, and the Legislature afterwards did not condone, but approved, its action. But had the Ticino Liberals studied our history, they might, confident as they were of the support of the Protestant cantons, have managed better. It appears plain enough to us that their proper course was to secure Federal interference after, instead of before, the election. They had then only to claim that their opponents' majority was an illegal one, and to set up their own Legislature and executive in a hall, after which they could have called for troops at their leisure.

THE FRENCH FOREIGN POLICY.

PARIS, July 25, 1889.

I MUST return to the book of Count Chaudordy, 'France in 1889.' I have analyzed its first part, which treats of the state of parties in France and of the interior condition of the country. The second part is an analysis of its foreign policy, which derives much interest as coming from a man who has occupied important diplomatic posts, and who is acquainted with all the most eminent diplomats of the Continent. The author begins by a rapid survey of the wars of the last centuries—Thirty Years' War, the Peace of Westphalia, the Seven Years' War, the Partition of Poland, the French Revolution. The wars of Napoleon are not narrated, but their results are rapidly shown. Let us come immediately to the year 1870. When the Empire fell, the Government born on the 4th of September ought, says M. de Chaudordy, to have felt at once the necessity of creating for itself an authority and a legitimacy which were necessary to it, not only in the eyes of the country, but in the eyes of foreign Powers. Elections for a National Assembly ought to have been held at once. But the new Government was only preoccupied with Paris; it was not really preoccupied with the great Powers. It had no right to count much on Spain, which had become more free to choose a sovereign, nor on Italy, which profited by the war and took Rome, nor on Russia, which rebuilt Sebastopol and wiped out some articles of the Treaty of Paris; but could not a regular French Government expect some help from England and from Austria? M. de Chaudordy believes that England and Austria made a mistake in not interfering in favor of France: "After having waited for some French success before pronouncing in our favor, Austria threw herself into the arms of victorious Prussia, and consecrated, in a fit of diplomatic intimacy, the new German Empire. The Austro-Hungarian Empire alienated prematurely in favor of Prussia the greater part of its liberty of action. Hungary being always in a state of uneasiness on account of Russia, and the Austrian province having German aspirations, it is easy to understand that Berlin now dictates its will to Vienna and to Pesth."

M. de Chaudordy analyzes the state of Europe, and shows that there is little foundation now for an alliance of the Latin races—an alliance which has often been considered as a safeguard for Europe and for peace. It is, in his eyes, a mere dream; on the contrary, he considers that the old alliance between Prussia and Russia is come to an end, and that there are many reasons for an understanding between France and Russia. Since the wars of the be-

ginning of the century, Prussia and Russia had always walked hand in hand; they gave reality to what was called the "Holy Alliance"—an alliance which embodied profound analogies of ambition, of principles, of government; which represented a common defence of the old régime, a common opposition to the more liberal Occidental ideas.

Under the Emperor Nicholas, the prestige was on the side of Russia; since his death it has been on the side of Prussia. But we have seen in our time a new phenomenon, a revival of the old-Russian party. What is an old-Russian? Is he essentially an enemy of Germany? Not so much as a partisan of a Russian self-development by the systematic exclusion of all imported men or ideas; an adept of Slavism as represented by the *Moscow Gazette* and by the school of Katkoff. France has no interest in counteracting this Russian self-development, since, not being a neighbor of Russia, she cannot expect to play directly a part in her internal affairs. Germany is Russia's neighbor, and there has been a constant importation of Germans into the Russian Empire. The whole modern literature of Russia shows how deep is the enmity between the old-Russian elements and the imported German element.

Poland has long stood between France and Russia, but "we are now," says M. de Chaudordy, "unable to help the Poles, and our intervention has, in fact, always aggravated their situation. We can, therefore, only advise them to come nearer the nation with which they have such a narrow community of origin." There seems, therefore, to be no hindrance now to intimate relations between France and Russia. "All those who, in France, can exert an influence, great or small, on our foreign policy, ought to work for it; all parties, all opinions, ought to concur in this, for it is our salvation abroad. The two great Slavic and French races are admirably fitted to understand each other, and the two nations will find immense advantages in it." Peter the Great, when he came to Paris, Napoleon at Tilsit, Napoleon III. in 1856, at the time of the Treaty of Paris, all had this alliance in view.

The task of Russia in the future is immense, and, in order to accomplish it, she needs allies having no interests in contradiction with her own. The United States have sometimes seemed to be such an ally, but the United States follow a policy of non-intervention, and do not meddle with the affairs of Europe. Prussia has Slavic provinces and covets the German provinces which are a part of Russia; moreover, the Baltic, Denmark, the passages of the Sound can always become a bone of contention. As for Austria, she is the natural enemy of Russia, and we now see the Balkan Peninsula torn by factions which are nothing in reality but the Austrian faction and the Russian faction. The rivalry between England and Russia has been proverbial; M. de Chaudordy regrets it, as better relations between these two countries could only be very advantageous to France. It might, perhaps, he thinks, be possible to reconcile them. Public opinion in England on the subject of Constantinople and the Dardanelles is not what it was at the time of Lord Palmerston. Since the opening of the Suez Canal, the Eastern objective of England has been transferred from Constantinople to Egypt. The Russians have no intention of invading India, though they sometimes speak of it. Their ambition has an ample career in Asia, and they content themselves with advancing slowly, between Persia and Afghanistan, towards the Persian Gulf. At the time when Prince Alexander of Bulgaria became very popular in England, and when it was

thought by some that an effort ought to be made in his favor against Russia, the British Parliament showed very clearly that it had no intention of picking a quarrel with Russia, and many articles appeared in the English press tending to prove that Egypt had become the only point in the East where England had any vital interests to defend.

The survey made of our foreign policy since 1870 by M. de Chaudordy is interesting. The Government of M. Thiers had, so to speak, no foreign policy; he treated all foreign affairs himself directly, a dangerous system, as, when the head of the State is once engaged, he has no way of repairing an error. The Government of Marshal MacMahon was conducted after the old traditional methods. M. de Chaudordy condemns in strong terms the colonial policy which was adopted by the successors of Marshal MacMahon. In old days, when a country created colonies, she opened a new field for her trade, as the colony was obliged to buy exclusively the products of the metropolis. In our time, in virtue of the treaties made with various Powers, these Powers can trade with our colonies on the same terms as ourselves. "We do not see," said a foreign diplomat, "why we should oppose your conquest of Tonquin; you will have all the expense, and we shall reap the benefit." Our war in Tonquin embroiled us with China, a Power which sooner or later will have an influence that will not be limited to the extreme East. If we had a long war, it would become very difficult for us to protect those frontiers of our colonies which touch China. Tonquin is not a popular name among our soldiers and our peasants, and the secret of the intense unpopularity of Jules Ferry (always called the "Tonkinois" by the small press) lies in the fact that he was the principal advocate of the colonial policy.

After the war of 1870, the new peace remained, so to speak, under the protection of the alliance of the three emperors. This alliance of Prussia, Austria-Hungary, and Russia is now replaced by a closer alliance of Prussia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy. Russia has been discontented ever since the Treaty of Berlin, and maintains an isolated and sullen attitude. The misunderstanding between Prussia and Russia has become every day during the past two years more acute, and Europe lives in a state of inquietude; the present triple alliance has become a danger instead of being a protection.

A document added to M. de Chaudordy's book has attracted much attention. It is a despatch from M. de Saint-Vallier, November 14, 1879, giving an account of a conversation between the French Ambassador and Prince Bismarck, on his return from Vienna, after the conclusion of the alliance with Austria. It is easy to recognize the language of the German Chancellor, always bold, forcible, sometimes very picturesque. The Prince did not conceal from M. de Saint-Vallier that the policy of Russia with regard to Germany was modified, and that the old friendship had given place to jealousy and distrust; and he explained how he was going to make of Austria an obstacle to the ambition of Russia. He always felt the necessity of keeping Austria as a bulwark; he spared her after Sadowa, he would not mutilate her. The familiarity of the conversation, the eloquence of the speaker, the richness of his images, the depth of his views, make this document the most interesting part of M. de Chaudordy's volume. There may have been official denials of the authenticity of the document; but whoever will read will see that, with the exception, perhaps, of a few words, it must be genuine. M. de Saint-Vallier is now dead,

but I believe that he read this despatch to various people of his acquaintance, on account of the clear view which it gave, in Prince Bismarck's own words, of the new state of things in Germany, and of the character of the alliance of the two empires—an alliance directed against all possible enemies of the German nationality.

THE FINE ARTS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

I.—FRENCH SCULPTURE.

PARIS, July 23, 1889.

IN order to comprehend the extent of the exhibition of the fine arts at the Paris Exposition of 1889, some statistics must be given. This exhibition constitutes the first of the nine great groups of the Exposition proper, and is itself divided into five classes: first, oil paintings; second, paintings of different kinds, and drawings; third, sculpture and medallions; fourth, architectural drawings and models; fifth, engravings and lithographs. The works of art exhibited by France, and by each foreign country, are classified under these five heads in the official catalogue, and, so far as possible, the classification is marked in the placing of the works in the galleries.

As a matter of course, both because this is first of all a French exhibition, and because there is far greater production of the best work in the fine arts in Paris than in any other art centre, the French department is the most complete and the most extensive. There are 1,418 oil paintings alone; of other paintings and drawings 214, of sculptures 561, and of engravings 445—a total of 2,777 works. These are exhibited in more than thirty large galleries, without counting the hall called the *Galerie Rapp*, where on the ground floor a great part of the sculpture is exhibited, or the wide corridors outside the walls of the *Palais des Beaux-Arts*, along both sides of which sculpture is placed. Other groups of sculpture, again, are placed in the open air—on the promenades, and in the nooks of the gardens. To this total is to be added the magnificent "Retrospective Exhibition," comprising from 600 to 700 works executed by French artists from 1789 to 1889, the catalogue of which is not yet ready, and the special exhibitions of the Society of French Painters in Water Color and of the Pastel Society. These organizations have each a building of their own, and exhibiting, the "Aquarellistes" 463 works and the "Pastellistes" 153, bring up the total of the French part of the exhibition to something over 4,000 works.

The exhibits of other countries are placed in similar galleries in the northern half of the vast *Palais des Beaux-Arts*, the southern half being occupied by France; and, though in the main remarkably complete and varied, and coming from more than twenty-five different nations, they just about equal in their totality the number exhibited by the French. For some reason or other which I was unable to learn, the Belgian pictures and statuary were not included in the catalogue, but a note referred to the special catalogue of the Belgian exhibit, which I did not find it possible to procure. I should say, however, that the number of works from Belgium must be about the same as that sent from the United States. We have 572 works in all classes, and are closely followed by Great Britain with 552. Then come Italy with 327, Holland (*Pays-Bas*) with 288, Denmark 248, Sweden 228, Russia 205, Switzerland 168, Spain 179, Austria-Hungary 159, Norway 143, Germany (not a fully representative collection) 101; and Greece, Finland,

Rumania, Servia, the South and Central American States, and the International Section, including artists from various countries not represented in the Exhibition, follow these with smaller numbers.

In an exhibition of such enormous extent it is scarcely possible to see everything; but the galleries are admirably arranged, there is room enough and to spare in many of them, lighting and installation are excellent. Perhaps it is only a question of time and of physical endurance to accomplish it. It is, however, easy to determine where to begin. We must study the French exhibition to see what progress, if any, has been made since 1878. We can then compare this with the Retrospective Exhibition; and, the position of the French as the leaders in the modern schools of art being determined, we shall find interest and instruction in comparing with their work that which is being produced in other countries. We shall thus be best able to find the reasons of certain well defined "movements" which are manifesting themselves in different places, and to judge of their value and influence on the art of the future.

Nothing shows better the strength and the activity of the French in the arts at the present day than the work of their sculptors. Though sculpture is fostered by the State, and a considerable number of commissions are annually given by the national Government and the municipalities, it is by no means patronized by individuals as painting is. The official patronage, moreover, is mostly given to the sculptors of reputation, and we are almost at a loss to understand how the younger and still struggling artists go on producing, year after year, the important works we find them constantly exhibiting. The expenses are great, even for the production of a single work, and after it is done and exhibited the artist usually has it left on his hands, or is only able to dispose of it at a price that barely covers his outlay, exclusive of living expenses, and gives him no remuneration for his time. The only explanation possible is, that devotion to his art keeps him up to his work until lasting recognition is assured, and in the meanwhile he must keep himself alive by whatever *gagne-pain* comes in his way. The production of pot-boilers, which many young painters find a means for tiding over the days of adversity, and the making of which so many unfortunately adopt as a permanent profession, may not be so readily carried on by the sculptor as by the painter. The ignorant or uncultivated buyer who relieves the dealer of his cheap and superficially painted pictures never cares for sculpture in any form, for it is not gaudy and showy enough for his taste. Even when it is bad, it is unattractive to him. The Italian sculptors of to-day, it is true, find a market for their pretentious figures, in which the imitation of stuffs in marble and the *trompe-l'œil* of a gauzy veil enveloping weakly sentimental heads of women are elements in an ensemble of mere prettiness; but this manner of belittling a noble art finds no favor in France, and the sculptor who should practise it would scarcely find a reputable place to show off such work.

In the face of popular indifference, however, and a necessarily limited Government patronage, the sculptors of France show no falling off in productiveness or excellence. The men of achieved reputation are represented in this exhibition by many of the best works that have come from their hands in the past decade. The administration has also included in the competition for prizes such works as have been placed in the museums or in public places, and cannot therefore be brought to the Champ

de Mars. These works are entered in the catalogue, and the place is given where they are to be seen; but they are not numbered, and do not, of course, form a part of the 561 pieces of sculpture mentioned above. Guillaume, Delaplanche, Mercié, Aimé Millet, Saint-Marceaux, Moreau, Lemaire, Frémiet, Allar, and Barrias are well-known names among those whose exhibition at the Champ de Mars is only a partial showing of their ten years' work. Chapu is well seen in a group of nine works, including a fine figure in marble, "*La Peinture*," and Paul Dubois exhibits three busts, one of them of Paul Baudry, whose death since the last exhibition entitles his name to be emblazoned in the dome of the *Cour d'honneur*, where the principal works of the Retrospective Exhibition are placed.

Of younger men I find none that seem more promising than Antonin Carlès, who comes, like Mercié, from the South, and whose work began to attract attention in the salons in the commencement of the eighties. There is no more beautiful figure in the exhibition than the one by him called "*La Jeunesse*," a graceful and chaste young form, modelled with admirable firmness and yet with the most delicate and nervous touch. "*Abel*," a marble figure of a young man dead, is again a work of much strength, but of reserved strength, and with no indication of that rugged brutality which Rodin and his followers have made the fashion in many quarters. Adrien Gaudet, the author of "*Le Moissonneur*," that bent figure of the harvester with which he made such a brilliant début at the Salon of 1879, is another man of mark whose success is assured, and from whom much may be expected, to judge from his beautiful figure, "*Echo*," in the present exhibition, and his fine statue in plaster of *Parmentier*. To be noted also are Laoust, with excellent clothed figures of "*Lully*," violin in hand, and an effective rendering of an oft-treated subject, "*Pierrot*"; Lombard, with a delightful womanly "*Diana*"; Suchetet, with a charming recumbent female figure, "*Byblis*"; and Etche-to, Enderlin, Berteaux, Boutellier, Albert-Lefevre, and Lefèvre.

Auguste Rodin, of whom so much has been said and written in the past two years, since the production of his famous group of the six "*Bourgeois de Calais*," may be better judged at the special exhibition of his work at the gallery in the Rue de Sèze, where there are some thirty of his works, than here, where there are but five. A fragment of the group of the "*Bourgeois*"—a single one of the figures—three busts, and a group, which compose his exhibition, show him to be an unusual talent, and his work is strikingly vigorous and robust. One of the busts, a portrait of the sculptor Dalou, is notable for its fine, nervous construction and individuality of character. Another, that of M. Antonin Proust, the Commissioner of Fine Arts of the Exhibition, is equally fine in the quality of character seized and fixed, but the artist was less happy in his sitter than in the case of Dalou. The single figure of the "*Bourgeois*" is exceedingly impressive, even when thus seen detached, after one has seen the group of six. However opinions as to the talent of Rodin may differ, it is quite certain that he is the most prominent figure in the "new school"—those who seek to throw away entirely academic traditions—and, despite eccentricities, is a man of commanding power.

Delaplanche, whose charming figure "*Muslo*" is well known in America, and who was selected to do the figure of France distributing crowns to the nations come together at the Champ de Mars (a task in which he has acquitted himself well, it should be said in pass-

ing, for the great winged figure, poised on one foot, with drapery flowing in graceful lines, looks imposing at the top of the huge central dome of the Exhibition buildings; and in the small model exhibited in the galleries it is seen to be if not an original, at least, an artistic and dignified conception)—Delaplanche has done nothing better than a figure in marble called "La Danse," which was first exhibited at the Salon of last year. Sinewy and lithe, and yet voluptuous, slender of limb and finely jointed, the head poised gracefully on the lovely neck, it is an exquisite expression of the dance. Dalou's most remarkable work is a large bas-relief, representing the States-General at the sitting of June 23, 1789, a striking and dramatic composition of numerous figures. St.-Marceaux is seen at his best in a supple female figure, "La Danse Arabe," of less charm than the work of Delaplanche just mentioned, but of infinite elegance, and the woman of a handsome type. Frémiet, among nearly a dozen works, is strongest in his powerful and terrible group of a gorilla carrying off a woman, for which he received the medal of honor in sculpture at the Salon of 1887.

These are some of the most notable men and their works in this part of the French collection. There are many others of which I should like to speak, interesting both on account of the merits of the work or the fame of the artists; but enough has been said to show that there is no falling off in the excellence of French sculpture, nor any diminution of activity in producing on the part of the artists. The great art of sculpture has reached its highest development in modern times in France, and it may safely be asserted that it is better now than ever before. There is no Rude and no Houdon among the men of to-day, perhaps, as we their contemporaries view them near by; but it is quite possible that among those named posterity will find a greater than either of these. For the American who hopes for a great future for our own art, there is nothing to wish for more ardently than that a knowledge of the work being done by the French sculptors to-day may be widely spread among us. Such a knowledge would add to the dignity, the honesty, and the beauty of our art.

WILLIAM A. COFFIN.

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON AND PROTECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When, in his spirited biography of Washington, recently contributed to the American Statesmen Series, Henry Cabot Lodge discusses the origin of the American protective system, he seems to present an excellent example of reversion to type. All through the first volume and the early pages of the second we evidently are reading the conclusions of an historian; but we turn a leaf, and, to our bewilderment, not to say disgust, we are confronted with the words of the campaign orator and Congressional special pleader. According to Mr. Lodge, Washington was a protectionist because his views of the national welfare were broad and far-seeing. After one or two preliminary remarks in this vein, our historian continues with the following candid statements:

"Washington was brought up and had lived all his life under a system which came as near as possible to the ideal of the modern free-trader. The people of Virginia were devoted almost entirely to a single interest, tobacco-growing, that being the occupation in which

they could most profitably engage. No legislative artifices had been employed to enable them to diversify their industries or to establish manufactures. They bought in the cheapest market every luxury and most of the necessities of life. British merchants supplied all their wants, carried their tobacco, and advanced them money. Cheap labor, a single staple with wide fluctuations of value, a credit system, entire dependence on foreigners, and absolute free trade, according to the Manchester theories, should have produced an earthly paradise" (vol. ii, p. 114).

The intelligent mind stands appalled before such stuff as this. Is it humor? Is it satire? But even satire must contain an element of sense. In the last lines quoted, Congressman Lodge has been ingenious enough to associate the chief features of the colonial system with modern free trade as equally ruinous from an economic point of view. Fortunately he does not stop there. Virginia, in common with the rest of the Union, soon got the advantage of all the "legislative artifices" which our early statesmen could invent. What was the result? Mr. Lodge shall tell us in his own perspicuous language. The condition of things was, he says, "bad enough in his [Washington's] time, but he did not live to see Virginia, with her wasted and exhausted lands, stand still, while her sister States to the north passed her with giant strides in the race for wealth and population. He did not live to see her become, as a result of her colonial system, a mere breeder of slaves for the plantations of the Gulf States." Can it be possible that protective taxes did not make of Virginia "an earthly paradise," despite slave labor, a speculative business, and an uneconomical credit system? Perhaps after all Washington did not live "all his life under a system which came as near as possible to the ideal of the modern free-trader." Perhaps not: we should like to say undoubtedly not, but Mr. Lodge is so sure; and who ever caught a protectionist Congressman in a misrepresentation or an exaggeration?

There is a little moral to all this, viz., let us have our history and our party speeches separately.—Yours respectfully, ELDRIDGE.

Boston, July 10, 1889.

ENGLISH WOMAN-BURNING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondents who have recently discussed the question of witch-burning have not made it clear whether there is an authentic case of woman-burning for any offence in the penal records of England. While, as was pointed out by your correspondent in the issue of August 1, there were at least two crimes in Blackstone's day that were still punishable by burning alive in cases where they were committed by women, there is much doubt whether this extreme penalty was ever inflicted. Blackstone declares that there are "very few instances (and those accidental or by negligence) of any person's being embowelled or burned till previously deprived of sensation by strangling." That these persons thus "accidentally" burned alive were women is rendered highly improbable because of the existence of the same refined delicacy of feeling that forbade our forefathers publicly to expose and mangle the bodies of women culprits. This view is strengthened by the express declaration of Chitty, in his 'Criminal Law,' that "women who till lately were burned alive for high and petit treason, were always strangled at the stake before the commencement of the burning." It is, of course, possible that witchcraft, which was ranked with heresy, may have met with less mercy than treason or the killing of a husband. That under the English law wo-

men might be condemned to be burned alive for witchcraft admits of little doubt (IV. Bk., 60, 47), but is there an authentic instance where this sentence was literally carried out?

E. W. H.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., August 5, 1889.

SHAKESPEARE'S "MARRIAGE BOND."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been asked by letter to explain the nature of Shakespeare's "marriage bond." "What was it? and why was it given?" It was a bond for good behavior, so to speak. William Shakespeare was a minor, betrothed to a woman eight years older than himself. On the 28th of November, 1582, the Bishop of Worcester granted him a license to marry with one proclamation of the bans, instead of three, which last would have delayed the marriage a month. In return, the Bishop received Shakespeare's bond of indemnity for £40.

As a minor could not be surety for himself, and as the friends of Anne Hathaway had reason to desire the marriage to be speedily brought about, John Richardson of Shottery, witness to Richard Hathaway's will of the previous year, and Fulke Sandells, executor of that will, also of Shottery, became Shakespeare's sureties to that amount. John Shakespeare had been bondsman for Richard Hathaway in 1566, sixteen years before, so there had been long intercourse between the families.

The bond, etc., may be found in the seventh edition of Halliwell-Phillipps's 'Outlines,' but it seems to me there is a singular want of candor in admitting and explaining its true nature.

CAROLINE HEALEY DALL.

Notes.

MR. PAUL LEICESTER FORD, whose address is No. 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., will have ready in September 'American Bibliography: A Check-List of Bibliographies, Catalogues, Reference Lists, and Lists of Authorities of American Books and Subjects,' a quarto volume printed on alternate pages, and containing 1,070 titles, arranged by subject under 19 divisions and 150 subdivisions, with a classification of contents and an author's index. At the same time Mr. Ford will bring out his 'Franklin Bibliography: A List of Books written by or relating to Benjamin Franklin,' an edition of 500 copies uniform in size with Bigelow's octavo edition of Franklin's Works. No fewer than 1,500 titles and references are promised, the list of works wholly or in part written by Franklin numbering 600, and his pseudonyms amounting to 60. There will be chronological, classical, and general indices, and mention of the libraries where the works may be consulted.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue next month a 'Handbook of Psychology: Senses and Intellect,' by James Mark Baldwin, Professor of Philosophy in Lake Forest University.

'Problems in American Society,' by the Rev. Joseph Henry Crocker, will be published in a few weeks by George H. Ellis, Boston.

Frederick Warne & Co. announce that the forthcoming volume of "The Cavendish Library" will be 'William Hazlitt, Essayist and Critic,' being selections from his writings, with a memoir, biographical and critical, by Alexander Ireland.

Mr. Richard Le Gallienne, the author of a little volume of bookish poems, is preparing 'George Meredith, Novelist and Poet: A Series of Essays,' which will be published in London

by Mr. Elkin Mathews, with a bibliography by Mr. John Lane.

'With Friend and Book,' and 'In the Study and the Fields,' are the titles of two booklets by J. Rogers Rees, author of the 'Pleasures of a Bookworm,' which will be published in very limited editions by Mr. Frank Murray, of Derby and Nottingham.

The sixth volume of the 'Henry Irving Shakspeare' (Scribner & Welford) adds "Othello," "Antony and Cleopatra," "Coriolanus," and "Lear" to the edition, with the usual introductions and notes. Mr. Marshall's illness has occasioned some changes, in consequence of which Mr. Joseph Knight furnishes the stage histories of the plays, except "Othello"; the Rev. H. C. Beeching is responsible for "Coriolanus," and Mr. Arthur Symonds and Mr. Verity act as substitutes in two other plays. Mr. Oscar Fay Adams is also a collaborator. The new volume maintains the same general character as its predecessors, and the near completion of this useful and cheap edition is to be hailed with much satisfaction.

M. J. J. Weiss is one of the French authors whose great repute among the best French critics it is not always easy to understand. In the case of M. Weiss the reason is perhaps that his chief labors have been as a journalist, and only those on the spot can fully appreciate the merits of journalism. He has published very few books, but the latest of them, 'Le Théâtre et les Mœurs' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), is brilliant enough to justify the affectionate eulogies of MM. Sarcey and Lemaitre. Perhaps the most interesting passage is the autobiographic preface, in which M. Weiss describes his wanderings through France as a boy with his father's regiment, in which he had been enrolled as an *enfant de troupe*—just as Victor Hugo had done in his youth. 'It is pleasant to see that a writer as learned and as acute as M. Weiss has a good word to say for Scribe, whom the younger literary critics treat with undeserved intolerance.

The beautiful 'Almanach des Spectacles' appears for the fifteenth time, and the equally dainty 'Répertoire de la Comédie-Française' for the fifth, each with a portrait of Mlle. Mulder, one etched by M. Lalauze and the other by M. Abot (Paris: Jouaust; New York: F. W. Christern).

The more or less edifying controversy over 'Christianity and Agnosticism,' begun by Dr. Henry Wace at the Manchester Church Congress last year, and prolonged in the *Nineteenth Century* and *Fortnightly Review* by Prof. Huxley, the Bishop of Peterborough, Mr. Mallock, and Mrs. Humphry Ward, has been gathered into a volume of 329 duodecimo pages by D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Wm. C. Collar's reputation among classical teachers would insure attention to his 'Practical Latin Composition,' just published by Ginn & Co. It may be briefly described as a method of connecting immediately the reading of the Latin text with exercises upon it, using the text as the source at once of vocabulary and construction. Its very unlikeness to the disgusting and impotent older method of a generation ago (and later) is a certificate of merit.

Old New York is the title of a monthly journal relating to the history and antiquities of this city, edited and published by W. W. Pasko at 19 Park Place. The first number is dated August. It is typographically tasteful, and illustrations are promised hereafter. The hither term of "old" New York is defined as "a period within the recollection of middle-aged persons." The table of contents reads as

follows: Notes on the History of Printing in New York; An Englishman's View [the Rev. Isaac Fidler, 1831]; Index to Engravings in Valentine's Manual [a serviceable performance by an unpractised hand]; Extracts from Early Newspapers; The Introduction of Methodism; Death of Dr. Alexander Anderson [extracts from the journals of "the father of American wood-engraving"]; The Claims of Nicholas Jones; Editor's Notes. The stream seems likely to run full for an indefinite time.

In the *London Academy* for July 20 there is a note from Mr. G. C. M. Smith, which gives a list of parallel passages in Fitzgerald's version of the 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám and the new prose translation by Mr. McCarthy. Fitzgerald dealt with his author as the potter deals with his clay, and one might imagine Omar's "half-obliterated tongue" protesting at his treatment of him. Nevertheless, Fitzgerald left a better Omar Khayyám than he found.

The *Academy* also publishes a list of all pensions granted during the last year, ending June 20, and charged upon the Civil List, among which, as possessing a certain literary interest, we note the following: Mrs. W. G. Palgrave, £50; Mrs. R. A. Proctor, £100; the widow of Prof. F. Guthrie, £50; Miss Emily Faithfull, £50; and two or three other grants of £50 each to the widows or daughters of men eminent in some branch of learning or science. All these are not only in recognition of service done, but also on account of the recipient's inadequate means of support. As compared with some other items in the Civil List, the ones that we have quoted seem very meagre and scanty.

The seventeenth number of the 'Complete Index to *Littell's Living Age*' (Philadelphia, No. 1135 Pine Street: Edward Roth) finishes the Geographical topics and begins on History, which is advanced into France. The divisions which now succeed the long one of Biography promise to be rapidly disposed of.

We make a somewhat tardy mention of the completion of the thirteenth volume of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut), and of the eighth volume of the compact 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte' issued by Grote in Berlin (New York: Westermann). The Cyclopædia is brought down to Rubinstein, and has its customary variety of excellent maps and plates in black-and-white and in color. In the 'Universal History' is concluded the story of the Middle Ages, by Julius von Pfugk-Hartung, the parts immediately before us dealing with the Lombard, Frankish, and Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, the Byzantine emperors, the Papacy and Islam. Here again the illustrations continue to be of a high order, and conspicuous among them are fine facsimiles of mediæval manuscripts.

Sun and Shade for July (New York: The Photogravure Co.) has a well-chosen group of plates after paintings and from nature—a smoothed out but otherwise characteristic portrait of Barnum, the Eiffel Tower, and the Sphinx, being most noticeable. In this last view, an American base-ball team using every coign of vantage on the front of the Sphinx serves at least to give a scale to the monument.

We have received from the University of Pennsylvania a sumptuous 'Handbook of Information' concerning the School of Biology attached to that institution. The equipment and courses are fully set forth, and the exterior and interior of the school buildings illustrated by heliotype (alias Levytype) plates which speak for themselves. The school was organized five years ago, and has a library of its own of 2,000 volumes.

We have on our table 'The Navajo Chant: A Navajo Ceremony,' by Dr. Washington

Matthews, U. S. A.—a voluminous reprint from the fifth annual report of the Bureau of Ethnology, illustrated in colors and otherwise; and a 'Further Contribution to the Study of Consumption among the Indians,' by the same excellent and entertaining writer. Dr. Matthews is confirmed in his view that the Indians most in contact with civilization perish most largely from consumption, for causes some of which are certainly preventable.

A very interesting subject is attacked in Prof. A. S. Packard's memoir on the 'Cave Fauna of North America,' with remarks on the anatomy of the brain and origin of the blind species, and with numerous plates, printed in vol. iv of the 'Memoirs of the National Academy of Sciences.' A map of the Mammoth Cave is given.

—Nearly twenty years of the life of Washington are comprised in the second volume of his Writings edited by Mr. Worthington C. Ford. It opens amid the preparations for the capture of Fort Duquesne, in 1758, and ends with the Commander-in-Chief's address to the New York Provincial Congress on his way to Boston, June 26, 1775. In this interval he marries the widow Custis, and furnishes their home with liberal orders from London, where his clothes are also "made by one Charles Lawrence, in old Fish Street," and much of his wife's attire is procured. There, too, he sends for a new stylish chariot, on which he makes bold to paint the Washington arms. He did not appear to be ashamed of this dependence on a foreign country, not being yet a full-fledged American protectionist and Harrison Republican; but he joined heartily, in 1769, in urging non-importation as a check to British oppression of the colonies.

"I have always thought," he wrote to George Mason, "that by virtue of the same power . . . which assumes the right of taxation, they may attempt to restrain our manufactures, especially those of a public nature, the same equity prevailing in the one case as the other; it being no greater hardship to forbid my manufacturing than it is to order me to buy goods of them loaded with duties, for the express purpose of raising a revenue" (p. 265).

A Life of Mason, by the way, Mr. Ford announces on p. 263 as in preparation by a descendant, Miss Kate Mason Rowland of Baltimore.

—There are many glimpses of Washington the planter in letters and diaries. On April 9, 1760, the plantation "Doctor Laurie came here, I may add, drunk." The negroes that year had the smallpox. On July 2, 1766, Washington sold to the West Indies the boy Tom, who was rogue and runaway combined, and whom the captain was enjoined to handcuff till the vessel got to sea. Tom's equivalent was to be a hogshead of molasses and another of rum, a barrel of limes, a pot of tamarinds, and two of sweetmeats. In 1770, Washington "went over to Col. Thomas Moore's sale, and purchased two negroes, to wit, Frank and James." In 1775, he sent some of his imported indentured servants to the Ohio with his land-agent, whom he supplied with minute descriptions of each one in case they should run away and it should be necessary to "advertize a good reward" for them. On April 23, he had to advertise \$40 reward for a Bristol joiner and a Scotch brickmaker, who thus gave him the slip "on the 19th instant at night," "in a small yawl." On another side Washington appears as guardian of the unstudious Jack Custis, and as the benefactor of William Ramsay's son, whom he offered to educate at Princeton.

—We have received from Macmillan & Co. a small 12mo of 272 pages, being a translation of

three dialogues of Plato, the *Phædrus*, *Lysis*, and *Protagoras*. It is by J. Wright, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge. There is no preface or prefatory note of any kind. The title-page claims that it is a "new and literal translation chiefly from the text of Bekker." Each dialogue is preceded by a rather full and very well executed summary of its contents. Otherwise, there is no note or comment whatever. If Mr. Wright and most of the other authors of literal translations were asked to define exactly what they mean by the word "literal," they would, we think, find it somewhat difficult to answer. Mr. Wright's translation is characterized by a remarkable, not to say surprising, fidelity to the Greek text. At the same time the English is so idiomatic, so easy and flowing, that a person who did not know it was a translation might often read half-a-dozen pages without suspecting the fact. This is particularly the case where the interlocutor speaks in the manner of disquisition rather than dialogue, as for example, in the famous discourse on love which Socrates "preaches" in the *Phædrus*. Where the dialogue assumes a really conversational form, with a more equal distribution of the amount of talk between the interlocutors, Mr. Wright seems a little less "literal" and, it appears to us, a little less happy. However, even in this case, we think the translation one of unusual merit. In its mechanical make-up the book is a gem.

—In 1881 Prof. G. A. Wentworth of Phillips-Exeter Academy published his 'Elements of Algebra,' a work very extensively used since that time in our academies and high schools. The next year he published his much larger 'Complete Algebra,' not, as the title might imply, an entirely different work from the 'Elements,' and really to be called a 'Completed Algebra.' The new 'College Algebra' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is constructed on a different plan. Although it begins at the beginning in its development of the science, yet it practically assumes, on the part of the student, a previous acquaintance with algebra as far as quadratic equations. What the work contains up to this point is designed rather for the purpose of rendering it complete in itself, and to enable the student, by a brief review, to refresh his recollection of his former studies, than to be used by those who have never studied the subject at all. This course is very proper in a work on algebra designed especially for college use, because no student can enter college at all without having previously studied algebra to that extent. From quadratic equations on the treatment is very full. We have no space for detailed criticism, and can only mention one or two peculiarities of the work as distinguishing it from the author's previous treatises and from other works. The number of examples and problems for solution, although quite sufficient, is not so superabundant as in most of his text-books. There is throughout the work an evident attempt at novelty, an endeavor to say old things in a new way, which we do not think is in all cases an improvement. Among matters not usually treated in algebra we may mention a chapter on the "Graphical Representation of Functions," a subject which the student usually first meets with in Analytic Geometry, and a chapter on Determinants. The latter, which is very good, is, however, not by Prof. Wentworth himself, but by Prof. Sawin of Harvard University. On the whole, the book is a very good one, but we do not think it will greatly add to the reputation which Prof. Wentworth has already acquired.

—Those who wish to obtain some knowledge

of Old High German at a minimum expenditure of time and money will find their reckoning in Wright's 'Primer of Old High German' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). In this little volume of 170 pages the editor gives a full and clear outline of the phonology and grammatical forms of the language, some extracts in prose and in verse, from Tatian to the 'Muspilli,' and a glossary. The grammar is based, of course, upon Braune, and is therefore trustworthy. We notice that at page 56 the pronoun *iz* (modern neuter *es*) is defined as 'it,' 'there'! Would a grammarian of modern German define *es* in *es giebt* as 'there'? The distinction (p. 83) between *wesan* and *werdan* in forming the passive is not put very scientifically. Vowel length is marked throughout, an excellent feature in a book of the sort. We have to find fault with the glossary. It is altogether too meagre for the needs of a beginner, and is not accurate. Thus *agaleizi* is put down as feminine. How will this enable the pupil to read in *managemo agaleize* in the first line of Otfrid, where the adjective shows plainly that the noun cannot be feminine? Braune's glossary gives a feminine in *-i*, and a neuter in *-i*. The editor would have done better to follow Braune's example and enter all *gi*-compounds under the uncompounded form. His present arrangement is exasperating. And in general the vocabulary should be at least twice as large, with fuller definitions and copious references to both text and grammar. An editor can scarcely help the beginner too much in this direction. We hope to welcome the primer in a second edition, with the glossary recast as we have indicated.

—M. l'Abbé Fourrière, of whom we know only the name, has just published at Amiens a little book called 'Les Emprunts d'Homère au Livre de Judith,' acquaintance with which we have made only in a brief notice, with extracts, in the *Revue Critique*. Some of the Abbé's opinions are amusing enough. Of Homer he says: "The authors comprised under this name were of Jewish origin." "There were Jews in the Troad, especially in the country about Mount Ida, the inhabitants of which were called Idæans, a name almost identical with that of Judeans, or Jews." "When Homer says that an object bears two names, one in the language of the gods, the other in that of men, he means by the first tongue Hebrew, by the other, Greek. . . . If one compares the Æolic dialect with the Hebrew, striking resemblances are found between them." One of these is the resemblance of the Hebrew *vau* to the Æolic digamma. "Looked at from the religious point of view, the work of Homer is a battering-ram against Biblical monotheism, against the religion of the Hebrews." The author reserves all his rights of translation and reproduction. "Nothing is fair or good alone," as Emerson says, and Mr. Ignatius Donnelly may never know what argument his creed to the Abbé's book has lent.

—The national museum of Egyptian antiquities at Bulak contains a very interesting collection of plants which have been found in the catacombs and sepulchral monuments of the country. Dr. Schweinfurth was the first to study this ancient flora, which, according to the *Revue Scientifique*, contains no example of a plant that does not grow to-day in the Nile valley. Nor does the most minute examination show the least difference between the vegetation which flourished fifty centuries ago and that of the present time. In some cases the color of the flowers can be clearly distinguished, as, for instance, the purple larkspur, the red poppy, the reddish-brown saffron, and

the blue lotus. "The leaves of the water-melon contain grains of chlorophyll perfectly visible in the microscope." All these were found in great numbers in the burial-places of the fifteenth dynasty, 3000 B. C., and in one tomb of the same time some ears of barley. In later monuments were discovered mustard, flax, cucumbers, lentils, pine-cones, juniper-berries, dates, hollyhocks, chrysanthemums, figs, olives, onions, and grapes. Around the necks and upon the breasts of the mummies of 1100 B. C. were garlands of celery-leaves and blue lotus-flowers. In regard to the various specimens of grain discovered, it may be added that no attempt to make them grow has ever succeeded, the plants having been subjected to great heat at the time of the embalming and burial, which, while it preserved them, destroyed their germinating power. The cases in which mummy wheat is said to have been raised are due simply to the fraudulent mixture of modern with the ancient grains.

—The tenth number of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch*, while it contains perhaps nothing which any one need feel that he positively must read before eating or sleeping, is still fairly interesting, or at least will be thought so by the votaries of the cult which it represents. The archives at Weimar have been made to yield up the usual batch of hitherto unpublished letters, the best of those given this year being some letters written by Goethe and his wife in 1808-9 to their son August, who had lately entered the University. These missives give us a pleasant glimpse of the poet in his capacity of paterfamilias, promising more money, counselling temperance, and making suggestions upon the art of living wisely in one's youth. In view of his own early disgust with academic life, such a passage as this is suggestive: "I also approve your taking but few lectures. In study, everything depends upon one's mastering, step by step, that which one purposes to acquire. As soon as the instruction offered grows over one's head, one becomes stolid or disgusted and is easily tempted to reject the whole." So, too, the bitter outburst of *Faust* upon the study of history, the "book with seven seals," and upon the futility of the efforts of the learned gentlemen to "transport themselves into the spirit of past times," is provided with a needful commentary by this passage: "I am pleased that your studies are taking an historical turn. To learn how things have come about in human, earthly fashion, what has been lost, and what has remained as a living force, is as instructive as it is delightful; and the young man whose fortune it is to lay hold of the Past in that way anticipates old age and prepares for himself a pleasant life." Of the letters of Frau Goethe one finds little more to say than that they are sensible, affectionate, and, on the whole, pretty well written. Some things in them have a strange sound to modern American ears, as where, for example, after bidding her son be at his ease with respect to money, assuring him that his father will not be close if he only spends his allowance properly, and promising to send an occasional remittance on her own account, she adds: "But I have only won 75 gulden at the lottery; with these I shall take a new chance, and this time I shall surely win."

—Of the essays contributed the most valuable is one entitled "Classiker und Romantiker," by Jacob Minor. It is really an inquiry into the origin of that far-famed antithesis. It is well known that there was an excellent understanding at first between Goethe and the Romantics. The members of the "school"

admired him and sang his praises, and it was not until after 1805 that any breach became apparent. Minor attempts to trace the influence of the Romantics upon Goethe's work, maintaining among other things that the First Part of "Faust" was strongly affected by the new movement, and really took on the form of a "romantic" drama in Tieck's manner. Finally, we observe that the *Jahrbuch's* eighty pages of bibliography testify abundantly to the world's—more especially Germany's—unwearied activity in the production of Goethe literature.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE.

The First Three Years of Childhood. By Bernard Perez. Edited and translated by Alice M. Christie. With an introduction by James Sully, M.A. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.

Lectures on Pedagogy, Theoretical and Practical. By Gabriel Compayré. Translated, with an introduction, notes, and an appendix by W. H. Payne, A.M. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Occasional Addresses on Educational Subjects. By S. S. Laurie, A.M., LL.D., Professor of the Institutes and History of Education in the University of Edinburgh. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Notes on the Early Training of Children. By Mrs. Frank Malleon. Third edition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Sonnenschein's Cyclopædia of Education. A Handbook of Reference on all Subjects connected with Education (its History, Theory, and Practice). Edited by Alfred Ewen Fletcher. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.

Two classes of books mark the progress of education: first, original contributions to pedagogy and the kindred sciences, such as psychology and ethics; second, books that recast old pedagogical truth and attempt to bring the maxims of common sense into the working consciousness of teachers. The work by M. Perez that heads our list may fairly claim a place in the former of these classes. The book is already too well known to require extended comment; but the appearance of an authorized American edition of the English translation is a sign of the interest of our teachers in the scientific study of babyhood. The author has not, like Darwin, written a biographical sketch of a single infant; but he has observed and compared the activities of many children, tracing the development of perception, the sentiments, will, memory, imagination, and the other mental activities in the early years of childhood. No one observer can see all there is in child nature, but M. Perez has seen a great deal that is of psychological interest; and, "not blushing to descend to petty details," he has recorded his observations with scientific thoroughness. Moreover, he has studied his material carefully, and presented the results of his study in the lucid French style that lends itself to intelligible translation. The translator, too, deserves praise for reproducing in English the clearness and simplicity of the original. It is a pedagogical commonplace that the art of education is a practical application of the science of psychology, and psychogenesis is now one of the most important chapters in psychology. Thoughtful teachers, then, do well to study works like this and Prof. Preyer's "Die Seele des Kindes," for they form the best text-books in infant psychology.

'Lectures on Pedagogy' is another good

translation of the work of a well-known French writer. These lectures, originally delivered by M. Compayré at the normal schools of Fontenay-aux-Roses and Saint-Cloud, give a good résumé of the theory and practice of education. The book is enriched by judicious selections from eminent writers. It is well written, scholarly, and interesting. The part devoted to practical pedagogy is especially sound. The author is no advocate of that pedantry of method that would have every lesson taught by scholastic formulæ; nor does he deem it necessary to stuff the memory of teachers with the "pedagogic nonsense" of those writers who divide instruction into many forms, as the *achromatic* form, the *erotomatic*, *catechetical*, *analytic*, *synthetic*, *paralogic*, and the like; and then subdivide into a score of processes. Modern education is said to approach nature. "Alas!" he exclaims, "we are far from nature with these distillers of pedagogic quintessence, who split hairs, who distinguish and analyze the simplest things, and invent several barbarous terms to designate identical operations."

One criticism may be made upon this book. While the author bases the science of education upon psychology, his sections upon Will, Attention, Memory, Habit, and the like lack the emphasis and suggestiveness that modern physiological and experimental psychology has imparted to these subjects. The author, however, has handled the facts of introspective psychology unusually well, and presented their pedagogical aspects in a suggestive manner. Prof. Payne's translation of Compayré's "Histoire de la Pédagogie" is the best history of pedagogy in English; and he has again rendered valuable service to education by this translation of the "Cours de Pédagogie, théorique et pratique."

The book just noticed and Prof. Laurie's "Occasional Addresses" are none the less valuable for belonging to the second class of books mentioned above. Most pedagogical truths are commonplace; but platitudes usually contain the genuine ore of wisdom. They are like old worn coin, not valuable because old and worn, but old and worn because valuable. One who can recoin them, stamp them with his own individuality, and make their original value recognized at the world's counters, does a service well-nigh equal to that of one who makes an original contribution to science. This is, in great part, the work of Prof. Laurie in these addresses. Much of the book consists of what if said in a different way would be commonplace. But the author has caught an inspiration from his philosophical studies, and nothing to him is common. Few writers put so much life into the discussion of such subjects as "The Organization of the Curriculum of Secondary Schools," "Free Schooling," "Examinations," and the like.

The essay upon "The Respective Functions in Education of Primary, Secondary, and University Schools" is one of the best. According to Professor Laurie, the idea that should dominate instruction in all these grades is *nutrition*. But in the secondary schools there must also be the special aim of discipline. The youth are in the turbulent period of adolescence. "The chief lesson to be taught now is the lesson of law and duty, and of personal effort." The aim of the university likewise is *nutrition*—"the nutrition of ideas." The discipline, however, should be self-discipline, which is possible only through the utmost freedom. The following passage will indicate the author's radical position:

"The essence of university life is freedom for the student and freedom for the professor."

It is simply because the university has become a certifying and graduating body that even the calling of class-rolls is justifiable. Even as a graduating body I doubt, after all, if it is justified in calling them. The professor offers to show the student the way to knowledge, and to teach him how to use the instruments of knowledge, whether they be books or microscopes; and there his function ends. If any parent is unwilling to send his son to the free life of a university, let him keep him at home and call in a trained nurse or a paternal tutor."

In Prof. Laurie's opinion, the curricula of universities should be entirely elective. Boys have no place in the higher academic halls. They should remain in the secondary schools until they receive the moral and intellectual discipline that fits them for the ideal atmosphere of the university.

Mrs. Malleon's 'Notes' are the straightforward utterances of common sense in regard to the training of children. The critical reader may pronounce them commonplace, but there are plenty of mothers who will find the advice in this little book helpful. Such books are always useful if they are read by those for whom they are written.

The last book on our list is a valuable addition to educational literature. Among the contributors are such prominent educators as Principal Donaldson, Oscar Browning, Sir Philip Magnus, Arthur Sidgwick, and James Sully. A wide range of subjects is treated, including the various branches of study, school virtues, methods of teaching, main points in the history of education, together with biographical sketches of prominent educators and explanation of pedagogical technicalities. "It has been the aim of the contributors," says the editor, "to give a telescopic rather than a microscopic view of the educational facts and questions discussed, and to bring their purely pedagogical features into clear outline." Subjects of special importance, however—such as Schools of Antiquity, The Reformation, Universities, Technical Education, School Law, and the more common branches of study—are treated at considerable length. These longer articles are very valuable, and the biographical and miscellaneous sketches are convenient. The emphasis is placed upon education in England; but, on the whole, the subjects have been judiciously chosen and ably discussed.

Some omissions, however, are to be regretted. For example, no mention is made of the Church Fathers. St. Jerome at least should be noticed on account of his letters on the education of girls. And among scholastic teachers, while Alcuin, Abelard, and Roger Bacon are noticed, there are no sketches of Capella, whose "Satyricon" was the great text-book for a thousand years, nor of Peter Lombard and his famous "Sentences," nor of Thomas Aquinas, whose philosophy has dominated the higher Catholic education for the last 600 years. Among women eminent in education, Jacqueline Pascal and Madame de Maintenon are noticed; but Madame Necker and Madame Guizot are slighted.

The view of American education presented is astigmatic rather than "telescopic." No adequate account of our public schools is given, and little attention is devoted to higher education in this country. There is some account of Harvard and the University of Virginia. The post-graduate work at Johns Hopkins, Yale, and other prominent universities is barely mentioned; but we learn that the Illinois Wesleyan University has established non-resident and post-graduate courses of study. Isabella Graham, Ezra Cornell, Peter Cooper, and James Garfield (sic) are the subjects of separate biographical sketches; but Benjamin Franklin, Alex. Dallas Bache, and Thomas Jefferson are

not mentioned. Even the proof-reading of American literature in the bibliography has not been entirely accurate. "H. R. Adams" stands for H. B. Adams (p. 559), and Charles Francis Adams would hardly recognize his $\Phi \Psi \chi$ polemic on the Greek question by its new title, "A College Fetch" (p. 552).

When the editor turned his telescope towards the past, the images of Rome and Judea must have fallen on his mental blind-spot; for, while the long article devoted to "Schools of Antiquity" gives an interesting account of education in Assyria, Babylonia, China, Egypt, India, and Persia, there is no mention, except incidentally, of Greek, Roman, and Hebrew schools. This omission is in part supplied by separate articles devoted to Athenian and Lacedæmonian education. But one looks in vain for sketches of such men as Pythagoras, whose famous school at Crotona certainly deserves mention, and Quintilian, whose "Institutes" presents in detail the Roman ideal of an orator's education from the cradle to the forum, and Plutarch, the first, so far as is known, to write a special treatise "On the Training of Children." In short, the account of Greek education is incomplete, and both the practical education of the Romans and the domestic and religious education of the Israelites are entirely neglected.

The book, for the most part, is written in plain English, but the author of the article on "Pedantry" (p. 258) begins with slovenly rhetoric, as follows: "Pedantry is an awkward ostentation of needless learning, or an obstinate addiction to the forms of some private life, and not regarding general things enough." The typography is generally good; but the book is cheaply bound, and the insertion of advertisements between the pages of the text is unpardonable. Teachers will be grateful, however, for so good a cyclopædia of pedagogical information in any form, and the value of the book is enhanced by an excellent bibliography of thirty-four octavo pages.

MADAME DE STAËL.—I.

Madame de Staël: her Friends and her Influence in Politics and Literature. By Lady Blennerhasset. 3 vols. 8vo. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1889.

SAINT-BEUVE, who had a weakness for Madame de Staël, says that "the best good fortune for an immortal memory is to have, long after death, two or three of those revivals and magnificent awakenings which astonish new generations, and convince them that a great man lies dead there, still powerful in his shade and silence." Such revivals are brought about by the posthumous publication, after the lapse of many years, of autobiographic memoirs; of correspondence, published as it was written, unchanged, simply in order of dates, which can show the writer as he really was—not dressed up for the public; and more rarely by a well-written biography, especially if it be based on unknown or little known materials.

Mme. de Staël has had none of this good fortune. Unluckily for her, and for us, too, her son died childless; her only daughter married a Duc de Broglie, and one of her granddaughters a Comte d'Haussonville; and the proprieties of these noble families might suffer by allowing the public to see Mme. de Staël too closely. Not even the correspondence with Mme. Récamier has been printed, though it was read by Sainte-Beuve. Much has been written about her, but seventy-two years have elapsed since her death, and there has been no adequate biography of her. The book before us is an ef-

fort to supply this want. The authoress, though the wife of an Irish Baronet, is a German by birth (born Countess von Leyden), and the book was originally written in German. The translation acknowledges some omissions which are generally unimportant, and it is a pity there are not still more, and that the book has not been reduced in size from three volumes to one. To those who are but superficially acquainted with those times, the history of the French Revolution, the account of Necker's financial and political schemes, and the biographies of every one whom Mme. de Staël met or knew, will be instructive and interesting; but there are probably few who are really interested in Mme. de Staël, who have not read memoirs and correspondence enough to have previously made acquaintance with all these people. Full as it is, the book does not take in everything even of what is printed; and although the authoress has consulted unpublished letters of her heroine in the library of Upsala and in private hands, she has evidently not had access to the family archives at Coppet. Some points in Mme. de Staël's life are even thus left misty, and such is the wealth of extrinsic detail that it is only by picking and choosing and putting together detached bits of the book that we arrive at any idea of Mme. de Staël herself.

Born in 1766, when her father was still only a Swiss banker in Paris, Anne Louise Germaine Necker was brought up among the literary celebrities of the day who frequented her mother's salon. Her education was directed by her mother, who was herself almost a learned woman, but strict and severe, and a great believer in method and rule. She was convinced that everything could be learned, and that study was the chief thing in education. Had her daughter not possessed originality and a mind of her own, as well as a remarkably quick intelligence which replaced perseverance and application, she would have broken down under the system. As it was, her health gave way, and the great Tronchin prescribed a country life, continuous exercise, and fresh air, with the complete cessation of all mental exertion. Mme. Necker could not accustom herself to this, and lost her interest in her daughter when she found she could no longer make her as she wished. Years after, when some one was praising Mme. de Staël's extraordinary gifts, Mme. Necker characteristically replied: "They are absolutely nothing to what I intended them to be."

Her surroundings made her as a child precocious, priggish, and pedantic, and she early developed her love for conversation. From her earliest years she wrote, first, sketches of character in the fashion of the time; then verses, essays, and plays—one of which, "Montmorency," written when she was about thirteen, is said to have been clever, and she loved to read it aloud long afterwards; but, as Gouverneur Morris says, "She writes much better than she reads." Before she was fifteen she had annotated "L'Esprit des Lois," had written a treatise on the Edict of Nantes, when the Abbé Raynal flattered her by proposing to incorporate it in the next edition of his "Histoire des Indes"; and at about the same time she reviewed her father's "Compte Rendu," pretending that it was done anonymously, although he recognized the style.

All her life Mme. de Staël had need of loving and of being loved. At first she spent this feeling on her father, whom she always admired and idolized. Morris, writing in 1789, says: "I think that in my life I never saw such exuberant vanity as that of Mme. de Staël upon the subject of her father. Speaking of the opinion

of the Bishop d'Autun upon the subject of the church property, . . . she says, 'It is excellent, it is admirable, in short, there are two pages in it which are worthy of M. Necker.' Afterwards she says that wisdom is a very rare quality, and she knows of no one who possesses it in a superlative degree except her father." It was this admiration which led her into some of her political errors.

Mlle. Necker's marriage was beset with great difficulties. Both she and her parents preferred a French alliance; but, although the sons of great noble houses did not scruple to marry the daughters of financiers, Necker was a Protestant, and it was not till 1788, on the eve of the Revolution, that the ban of the law was removed from Protestants, their civil rights restored, and their children legitimized, for in the eye of the law they were all bastards. When she was seventeen, she might have married William Pitt, then twenty-four years old, whom she had met at court at Fontainebleau. The proposal was made by Pitt after his return to England, and was warmly supported by the Neckers. But their daughter refused, as she could not tear herself away for life from Paris, which to her was equivalent to France. Her mother, who was then dying, scarcely forgave her. It was only after his rejection, if at all, that Pitt said he "was already wedded to his country." The successful wooer was Baron Eric Magnus von Staël-Holstein, Secretary to the Swedish Embassy, who was already a favorite in French society. Supported by the Comtesse de Boufflers, he had for five years sought the lady's hand; but Necker's conditions, in consideration of his position and his large fortune, were very hard. They were:

"(1.) A life appointment of Staël to the French Embassy; (2) a pension of 20,000 francs, should unforeseen events deprive him of his post; (3) the title of Count—especially to obviate any confusion between Baroness de Staël and another lady of the same name who bore a doubtful reputation; (4) a solemn promise on Staël's part only to take his wife to Sweden for a short time, and then only with their consent; (5) investiture of the Order of the Polar Star for the Ambassador; (6) an explicit declaration from Marie Antoinette in favor of this marriage."

Such conditions show Necker's immense conceit with himself and his belief in his great importance. King Gustavus, however, did not seem inclined to accept them, and it was only on the personal request of Marie Antoinette, and after the island of St. Bartholomew had been ceded by Sweden to France, that he agreed to everything except the title of Count and the life appointment. He named Staël Ambassador for six years, and promised him an additional term of six years. Two other suitors had meanwhile appeared—Count Axel Fersen, who had made the proposal only to please his father, and readily gave way to his friend; and Prince George Augustus of Mecklenburg, a brother of the reigning Duke, who described himself as a posthumous son with many debts, but used as an argument that Mlle. Necker would thus become related by marriage to the King of England. Finally the marriage contract was witnessed by the King and Queen of France, and the marriage itself was celebrated in the chapel of the Swedish Embassy at Paris in January, 1786, about three months before the bride had attained her twentieth year.

In Paris, Baron de Staël was overshadowed by his brilliant wife; but his recently published letters and despatches prove that he was by no means the nonentity which her friends accounted him. He was sincerely fond of his wife, but he was unable to express his feelings in that gushing manner which seemed so necessary to her nature. She continued to live un-

der the same roof with him, though, while her parents were in Paris, the most of her evenings were spent with them, and her real salon was at their house. After some time she became entirely indifferent to her husband. In the well-known chapter in 'De l'Allemagne,' on love in marriage, she hints that he had displayed too little sentiment—or sentimentality, perhaps—in married life; and in 'Corinne,' she also hints that he could not retain her esteem because he possessed so little intellectual distinction. Bollmann heard her say one day: "With a man who is only clever I assert myself, and I do the same with a man who is only learned; but a man who is both makes me feel that I am only a woman." De Staël felt keenly this desertion, and, only three years after his marriage, when to a great extent given up to mysticism, he wrote to a friend:

"I have spent many bitter hours since your departure. If I knew how to bear my cross, my fate would be more endurable; but the old Adam prevails. . . . I have deserved my present sufferings. I am punished in my innermost feelings, but I still dare to think that, notwithstanding all my faults, my heart has remained steadfast. Pray for my wife. May she never suffer from the torment I endure."

The marital relation, however, continued, and it was not until 1798, when Mme. de Staël, by her meddling in French politics, and by the disfavor in which she was held by the Directory, threatened to wreck the Ambassador's career for a third time, that a formal separation—*de facto*, if not *de jure*—took place. Staël was at that time considerably in debt, partly through the great expenses necessitated by his position, partly through large amounts spent to carry out the orders of his sovereign, and partly from his wife's extravagance, which had needed even the Queen's warning. Some small debts were paid by Necker, who otherwise refused to have anything further to do with his son-in-law. Napoleon, we know, had his own reasons for disliking Mme. de Staël, and yet it is difficult not to agree with him in a letter written to his brother Joseph from Aosta, March 19, 1800:

"M. de Staël is in the greatest misery, and his wife gives dinners and balls. If you must continue to visit this woman, would it not be as well to persuade her to bestow a thousand or two thousand francs a month on her husband? What is to happen next if decent people allow not morals only to be trampled under foot, but duties more sacred than those that bind children to their parents? Supposing Mme. de Staël were to be judged as if she were a man, and as one who had inherited Necker's fortune, enjoying all the advantages of a distinguished position, and yet leaving his wife in a state of misery, while he was living in luxury—I ask if such a man would be received in society?"

In 1802, finding that her husband's health had entirely broken down, and willing at last to show him the kindness which she was so ready to bestow on others, she wrote to him in Sweden that she would condone the past and would return to him. They started together for Paris, but he died suddenly when only fifteen miles from Coppet.

It is to be supposed that the poor Baron had tacitly condoned the faults of his wife. She was always a believer in friendship, especially with the male sex. Wherever she was, her house was full of men—either as protégés in the paths of literature, politics, and virtue, as recipients of her bounty, as friends, as admirers, or as something more. Her first great passion was for Narbonne, who was credited with being a son of Louis XV. Their intimacy had lasted during their residence at Paris; she had saved his life in the Reign of Terror, and she had subsequently given him hospitality in England. Their relations had then ceased, and "what had been a mere episode in his life was

closed with the same indifference with which he had begun it." She kept up an outward friendship, though she suffered long from the wound he had inflicted on her heart, and had many a bitter pang at his death in 1813. Next followed Benjamin Constant, who, after her husband's death, offered to marry her. This offer she refused unless she could retain her own name, as she was unwilling to confuse Europe (*désorienter l'Europe*) by changing it.

There were probably many other reasons, for their relations were not altogether happy ones, and Constant was always trying in vain to break loose from the chain which bound him to this masterful woman. He revenged himself long afterwards with his little masterpiece, 'Adolphe.' In this he had so changed all outward circumstances as to make himself think that she would not be recognized. But all near friends who had been spectators of their intimacy—especially the simple-minded Sismondi—knew at once who was meant by Ellénore. On reading the book, one has the utmost contempt for the weak and despicable character of Adolphe, in which Constant has faithfully painted himself; but one realizes that the position of a lover of Mme. de Staël must have been an Inferno. Nevertheless, even after the Restoration, Mme. de Staël lent Constant 80,000 francs, so that he could purchase property in Paris in order to qualify himself for election as a Deputy, on condition that half of it should be repaid on her daughter's marriage. When this took place, she was obliged to remind him more than once; and he wrote in his private journal, which has just been published: "Furious letter from Mme. de Staël. I am lying in wait for her, and shall crush her. I have all that is necessary for it." The threat, however, was not carried out.

When in Italy in 1805, Mme. de Staël, as is evident from her letters, fell desperately in love with the poet Monti, but as she tried in vain to induce him to join her band at Coppet, and submit himself to her influence for his literary improvement, there was apparently nothing which could be called a *liaison*. In 1810, after she had gone through a period of mysticism, from the religious part of which she never recovered, when she was about forty-five and had said and believed, "The door of my heart is shut," she gave sympathetic and tender care to a young patrician of Geneva, Jean de Rocca, who had served with distinction in the French army in Spain, had been shot through and through by guerrillas, and whose life had been preserved almost by a miracle through the care of a pitying Andalusian girl. Rocca was so much impressed by the mistress of Coppet that he said to a friend that he "would know so well how to love her that in the end she would marry him." "When he was told that she was old enough to be his mother, he replied that he was glad to have another reason for loving her. What seemed improbable took place. The woman who had never been beautiful, and who had never awakened any lasting affection in her youth, became the object of a passionate attachment ennobled by constancy, at a period when she had renounced all hopes in that direction." Still, with her ideas of her social rank, and with the thought that the eyes of Europe were fixed upon her, she refused to change her name or drop the title of Baroness, and hated to have it known that she had had the weakness to marry a man so many years younger than herself. The marriage, therefore, was kept secret, although in Sweden, for the sake of her children, it was revealed in confidence to the King. Elsewhere, and even in England, rather than be called Mme. de Rocca, she preferred to let

people suppose that she was travelling with her lover and her illegitimate daughter. It was only after her death—shortly followed by that of Rocca—that the marriage was made public.

WINSOR'S ABORIGINAL AMERICA.

Aboriginal America. [Narrative and Critical History of America, edited by Justin Winsor. Vol. I.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

In presence of a book like this, the seventh issue in the important series to which it belongs, the critic finds it difficult to remain faithful to his duties as a "critic." There is so much to laud and so little to animadvert upon that he feels himself exposed to the reproach of partiality. Of course, no man is ever completely satisfied by the work of any other man, and the first thing one does, in examining the doings of somebody else, is to try and find out wherein that somebody "seems" to display less knowledge, less experience, less depth, than he—the critic—might have displayed under similar circumstances and in face of the same exigencies. But it must be said of the work which Mr. Winsor has undertaken, that he has left less room for fault-finding of this narrow kind than any one who ever trod the difficult path of ancient American history.

It is natural that the bibliographical introduction should be furnished by the editor himself, since nobody was better fitted than he to give an idea of the Americana extant in libraries. It is pleasant to read the praise which he accords to Mr. H. H. Bancroft as a collector of sources. Whatever may be one's opinion in regard to the use which Mr. Bancroft has made of these sources—whether his own conclusions suit us or not—the mere fact that he has gathered and stored them should entitle him to our lasting gratitude. Nobody has ever paid a higher tribute to Mr. Bancroft on this score than Mr. Winsor, and nobody was better fitted to do it. It is somewhat regrettable, however, that the list of libraries rich in Americana does not extend beyond the United States. The libraries in Mexico, for instance, like the Biblioteca Nacional and the private libraries of Don Joaquin García Icazbalceta, José María Agreda, and of the Cura of Amecameca, Fortino Hipólito Vera, contain rare treasures.

The paper on "The Early Descriptions of America," also by Mr. Winsor, is an admirable piece of work. Beautifully and appropriately illustrated, and supplied with bibliographic notes of the highest importance, it is without parallel as yet for fulness and careful criticism of sources. The reader is made acquainted, in a manner as scientific as it is vivid, with the development of literature pertaining to the New World in the earliest times. It is the best existing guide to preparatory studies in American history—studies which, to our great regret be it said, have been until now largely neglected.

After these two introductions follows the chapter on "The Geographical Knowledge of the Ancients considered in relation to the Discovery of America." Mr. W. H. Tillinghast, to whom this chapter has been committed, exhausts the subject as far as is now possible. Splendid copies of almost forgotten maps accompany the article, and the Atlantis tale, the legends of Saint Brendan and Saint McLeod or Malo, as well as the question of the mythical island Antillia, with its seven cities, are very thoroughly ventilated. It strikes us, however, that, in regard to this kind of myths and hypotheses, the author might profitably have consulted the second edition of García's

"Origen de los Indios," so largely amplified and transformed by its editor, Andres Gonzalez Barcia. Not only would he have found therein references to numberless speculations concerning the origin of the Indians which are to-day lost sight of, but he would have met with notices of manuscript sources extant at the time. He, perhaps, also passes too lightly over the "montagna bruna" of Dante. It should not be forgotten that this allusion may stand in the same light as the remarkable passage,

"All' altro polo, e vidi quattro stelle";

and that, while the latter appears prophetic in regard to the subsequent discovery of the Southern Cross, the former may be equally so with respect to a geographical fact. In all these legends and myths there is probably a diminutive grain of truth, and whenever they show an exceptional persistence, it is a sign that we cannot absolutely discard them. Among the elder descriptions of the earth we miss the one given in 825 A. D., by the Irish monk Dicuil, under the title, 'De Mensura Orbis Terræ.' This little book (printed with an elaborate commentary by Letronne in 1814) is not a "first-hand" source; still, it is valuable, and the more so because it contains the positive statement that Irish monks had gone to Iceland prior to the year 800. (See cap. vii, par. i, 6.)

In "Precolumbian Explorations," Mr. Winsor gives a résumé, accompanied by the usual abundance of notes and bibliography. He, too, is silent on the subject of Dicuil, and does not mention among the sources the valuable book of Christoph Friedrich Muentzer, 'Kirchengeschichte von Daenemark und Norwegen.' That author gives among other things, on p. 576 of vol. i, the text of the bull of Pope Gregory IV., wherein the words, "Gronlandan—Islandon," etc., occur. It is needless to insist upon the general excellency of Mr. Winsor's monograph, by the side of which such slight omissions are truly insignificant. The cartography of Greenland is a masterpiece.

Chapter iii, on "Mexico and Central America," is a very careful review by the editor of what has been written and suggested as to the past of the Mexican and Central American tribes. He is wisely non-committal in regard to the differences of opinion concerning the stage of culture of these tribes at the time of the conquest and previously. It is not so much an historical as a purely ethnological question. The two "schools" that have arisen since Morgan's first radical but necessary efforts are distinguished from each other especially by the methods of research. The "men of Morgan," as H. H. Bancroft calls them, claim that ethnological study will enable us to reestablish the original condition of the Indian anywhere, and some even go so far as to assert that ethnological research will prove a very useful check on the statements of Spanish chroniclers, whose testimony they do not reject, but regard as reliable in many cases, provided a just and careful scrutiny precedes their use. In this consists the fundamental divergence of the two groups. The others separate documentary study from ethnology altogether, and even frequently fail to apply the most simple rules of criticism to the study of sources. But history can no longer be divorced from ethnology, especially in America, where the types of primitive mankind are still found, and may be investigated with comparative ease.

The monograph on "The Inca Civilization of Peru," by Mr. Clements R. Markham, suffers to some extent from want of ethnological data. Hardly any part of the American continent is so neglected by ethnologists, as Peru and Bo-

livia, and there is no section of the western world where studies like those initiated by Morgan, Powell, and Cushing, upon existing tribes, are more needed, and would, at the same time, be more profitable. Our knowledge of ancient Peru and the adjoining regions is as yet wholly based upon books and ruins, with but the slightest sprinkling of observations casually made upon the natives.

Dr. George E. Ellis's "The Red Indian of North America in Contact with the French and English" will surprise nobody who has read his book on 'The Red Man and the White Man in North America.' Still, there is some improvement upon the latter in the short essay embodied in Mr. Winsor's volume. But lack of practical acquaintance with Indian nature is here also the great drawback.

In chapter vi, "The Prehistoric Archaeology of North America," Prof. Henry W. Haynes has undertaken a very intricate, delicate, and difficult task, but the manner in which he has fulfilled it is certainly worthy of the book in which it appears. To give anything like a detailed sketch of his valuable paper would go beyond the limits of a review. Very cautious and guarded, Prof. Haynes has handled this subject with as much tact as learning, keeping aloof from any hazardous speculation of his own, giving due credit to every one for what he has said or done, and thus in each case throwing the responsibility where it properly belongs.

His monograph is a fit transition from preceding ones to the interesting essay by Mr. Winsor on "The Progress of Opinion Respecting the Origin and Antiquity of Man in America." In this the editor proceeds, in his calm, dispassionate, and objective manner, to exhibit the course taken by public and learned opinion regarding the origin of the Indians of America. It is in keeping with his previous monographs. But we fear he has done injustice to old Father Garcia when he says: "He goes over the supposed navigations of the Phœnicians, the identity of Peru with Solomon's Ophir, and the chances of African, Roman, and Jewish migrations, only to reject them all, and to favor a coming of Tartars and Chinese." By referring to chapter xxv, book 4, of the second edition, it becomes plain that Garcia favors, in fact, hardly any theory in particular, but admits that there is a likelihood in each and absolute certainty in none. In this respect the old Dominican has set an example that might have profited a great many of his successors, among whom he has had not a few detractors.

Lastly, there is again a bibliography, a sketch of archaeological museums and magazines, and a condensed paper on the "Myths and Religions of the Aborigines." All three are by Mr. Winsor, and breathe the spirit of learning, research, and honest criticism which characterize his and most of the other papers. In short, sincere gratitude is due to Mr. Winsor for this valuable and in many respects model publication, which to the scientist is indispensable, to the intelligent general reader an ornament and a priceless guide. We will add but one word, in regard to the illustrations: they are all "to the point," and useful accompaniments of the text. The reproductions of title-pages are excellent, and the copies of ancient maps also. Like the preceding volumes, this one has a special index, and a general index is promised in connection with the eighth and final volume.

A Text-book of General Astronomy for Colleges and Scientific Schools. By Charles A. Young, Ph.D., LL.D. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Few astronomers possess the marked qualifica-

tions of Prof. Young for the task of writing a general astronomy. His eminence as an original investigator in many branches of the science, his success as a popular writer and lecturer, and his wide experience as a teacher, have all, in particular the latter, contributed to his special fitness. Historical and descriptive, rather than philosophic and speculative, the book displays excellent judgment, and is a thoroughly competent exposition of the complex astronomy of to-day.

In the arrangement of his material, Prof. Young has not been less careful than in the widely varied choice of it. Everywhere there is evidence of a study of relative importance, and the whole is full, fair-minded, and judicious. Not a chapter but is written with an enthusiasm begotten of complete and accurate knowledge. To quote a few lines on the intensity of solar attraction (p. 267):

"If it were attempted to replace by bonds of steel the invisible gravitation which holds the earth to the sun, we should find the surprising result that it would be necessary to cover the whole surface of the earth with wires as large as telegraph wires, and only about half an inch apart from each other, in order to get a metallic connection that could stand the strain. This ligament of wires would be stretched almost to the breaking point."

And in the following page, of the problem of three bodies, he says:

"Its difficulty lies simply in the inadequacy of our present mathematical methods, and it is altogether probable that some time in the future this difficulty will be overcome—very possibly by the invention of new functions and numerical tables which shall bear some such relation to our present tables of logarithms, sines, etc., as these do to the old multiplication table of Pythagoras."

The book will not, however, be mistaken for mere entertainment for that sort of popular reader who must not be bothered to think while he reads. Prof. Young's literary style is well known and fully appreciated, and this text-book is easily his best work. His calm, perhaps over-judicial, way of stating things may often make it seem to the uninformed that astronomers know very little, any way, about the celestial spaces; but slight error on this side is better than on the other. If thorough instruction is attempted, the entire work will be found too exhaustive for the average elementary collegiate course; and for some teachers the necessary omission of much will prove a delicate task. But the treatise is excellent in every particular, and will be an inspiration to both teacher and taught.

No two writers would fit together such a mass of material alike—there is, in fact, no such thing as an absolute arrangement; but the general order adopted by Prof. Young seems in every way well advised. First, the practical side of the science is insisted upon. The definitions are logically developed, and must help much in precision of thought and speech. The treatment of precession is better than we remember to have seen elsewhere, and the precession in declination, usually overlooked in works of this sort, is here given proper prominence.

Prof. Young appears at his best in the chapters on the physics of the sun—where he is most at home. The treatment is clear and succinct. The so-called reversing layer is judiciously dealt with, and the observations and theories of others are generously set forth, though contrary to his own. The chapter on eclipses, solar and lunar, is full and clear, though compendious. In the chapter on central forces, mathematical formulæ are freely used, and the expression of the semi-axis major in terms of the velocity from infinity is very neat. The exposition of the lunar perturba-

tions is excellent, and the phenomena and explanation of the tides are well and sufficiently elaborated. The planets' apparent motions in loops always interest the student, and it would seem wise to have made a little more of them. Planetary perturbations are briefly dwelt upon, but very clearly; and an entire chapter is reserved for the determination of the distance of the sun, wherein the various methods are carefully classified, and the precision of each is prominently brought out. This is, in fact, one of the best chapters in the book. Comets and meteors are difficult subjects to handle, and Prof. Young's success with them is the more worthy of note.

In taking up the stars in the three concluding chapters, the author remarks the entrance upon a vaster subject, and, he might have added, a vastly more satisfying one. The treatment is peculiarly felicitous. In dealing with the popular notion of central suns, the solar system is contrasted with the stellar in these terms: "The solar system is an absolute monarchy with the sun supreme. The great stellar system appears to be a republic, without any such central, unique, and dominant authority." Of the triple and multiple stars known to constitute physical systems, he writes: "As, for instance in the multiple star θ Orionis, we have a number of stars not organized in pairs, but at more or less equal distances from each other, we are confronted by the problem of n bodies in its most general and unmanageable form. Nature challenges the mathematicians." Prof. Young concludes the cosmogony as follows:

"To use the technical language now usually employed, energy is unceasingly dissipated by the processes which maintain the present life of the universe; and this dissipation of energy can have but one ultimate result—that of absolute stagnation when a uniform temperature has everywhere been attained. If we carry our imagination backward, we reach at last a 'beginning of things' which has no intelligible antecedent; if forward, an end of things in stagnation. That by some process or other this end of things will result in 'new heavens and a new earth,' we can hardly doubt; but science has as yet no word of explanation."

For astronomical text-books, there is much that is novel both textual and illustrative. Sumner's method in navigation is lucidly set forth (p. 87); the additional matter about the achromatic objective is welcome (p. 25-6), and a few lines relative to the tests of lenses by the simple method of spectral images would here have been a further assistance; it is an excellent thing to express the masses of the planets in terms of the earth's instead of the sun's mass; star spectra are simply and effectively presented; and among other novel and helpful illustrations are the equatorial coude (53), Pickering's meridian photometer (473), and the photographic telescope of the brothers Henry at Paris (454). Also the new methods of observing the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, photographic and photometric, are not forgotten.

The student is now and then referred to the sort of observations he may advantageously attempt, even without instruments—variable stars for example; and occasionally there are directions for the use of the telescope in practical observation. It seems a mistake not to have made more of this, as the pupil may enter more fully into the spirit of the science by actually making observations of his own, crude though they be, than by cramming the information with which the book is so amply supplied as to be in parts encyclopædic.

Sundry fallacies receive a merited exposure. A frequent popular blunder relates to the lunar cusps, where it is only necessary to notice that "the horns are always turned away from the sun; so that the precise position in which they

stand at any time is always predictable, and has nothing whatsoever to do with the weather. Artists are sometimes careless in the manner in which they introduce the moon into landscapes. One occasionally sees the moon near the horizon with the horns turned downwards, a piece of drawing fit to go with Hogarth's barrel which shows both its heads at once" (p. 158). There is little that could have been omitted, the amount of repetition is trifling, and even the professional astronomer will rarely consult the book in vain. Some notice of the method of least squares might well have been included, as also of the almucantar. In dealing with direct and retrograde motions of the bodies of the solar system, there is no need of the distinction between inferior and superior planets made in all text-books: the phenomena are simplest explained as a case of parallax, and a single rule then suffices for all the planets—that when furthest from the earth they advance, and when nearest regrade.

All matters are well brought down to the date of issue. Here and there an insignificant error is a blemish. There was no lunar eclipse in 1886, and 1884 is apparently intended; on page 439, the name of Thomsen is incorrectly printed. Occasionally the types are at fault in grammar, and a dozen or more cross-references are wrong, which a subsequent edition may well correct. On page 519, in dealing with the abandoned rings in the nebular hypothesis, they are said to be "thrown off," although three pages earlier the author has wisely cautioned the student against the use of this expression. On page 325, too, the engraver has blundered in cutting the phases of Venus in the precise way explicitly pointed out before as incorrect.

The typography is attractive. The arrangement of the pages, the variety of type, and the illustrations, well-chosen and engraved, make up an inviting book. In a few instances the engraver has been unfortunate in cutting planetary details too baldly, and a comet or a nebula is occasionally a failure. The proof-reading has been pretty thoroughly done, and the publishers have afforded a strong, serviceable binding, with ornament eschewed. Great care has been exercised in the preparation and arrangement of a most ample index, which makes the whole easy of access for reference; but slovenly alphabetization detracts appreciably from otherwise perfect workmanship.

Prof. Young's success in attempting a clear, accurate, and justly proportioned presentation of the principles, facts, and methods of his science merits the widest recognition.

Deductive Logic. By St. George Stock, M. A. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 356.

ONE of the author's friends who looked over this book in manuscript advised him not to publish it because it was too like all other Logics; another advised him to cut out a considerable amount of new matter. We cannot help being of the opinion that both of these friends were persons of a great deal of wisdom. In spite of the fact that the latter advice was followed, a good part of the new matter which is retained is, as we shall presently show, erroneous, and the old matter is, to say the least, not better set forth than in several other text-books which we could name.

This is not saying that it is not, at many points, fresh and admirably expressed and fully mastered by good sense. It would be impossible for a man who has been studying and teaching logic at Oxford for seventeen years to write a thoroughly bad book on the subject. It is merely saying that the teacher

who should decide to adopt this book in his class-room instead of Bain, for instance, would be doing his pupils an injury. The trouble which the student usually has with his book on Logic is that it seems to him too much like a mixture of dry bones and sawdust. The best exposition of the subject is one which forces him, at every step, to see that there is an intimate connection between its formal rules and the trains of thought which actually go on in his own mind. Mill is still the only book for "the gentleman and the scholar" to read; but, for the young person who must be put quickly through the drill established by the schoolmen, and who must at the same time see that it has a close bearing upon the present perplexities of the scientific man and the practical thinker, hardly anything is so good as Bain. Bain, it is true, is open to plenty of objections of another kind; and there is no subject in which there is more urgent need of a new book which shall embody the recent improvements in the science, and which shall at the same time exhibit a kindly consideration for the weaknesses of immature minds.

Mr. Stock, as far as appears from his book, is wholly unacquainted with Symbolic Logic. That is a subject which throws so much light on logical theory that a brief treatment of it ought to be introduced into every text-book; but even if that is not done, no one who writes a book should be content to be ignorant of it. The conventions which Symbolic Logic finds absolutely essential are a source of very great simplicity and consistency in ordinary Logic. Mr. Stock does not mention Venn among the writers who have helped him, and he can hardly have read his persuasive plea for the thorough-going introduction of De Morgan's idea of a limited universe, and of the convention that particular propositions must imply the existence of terms, and universal must not. With this convention, it is true that we must "accept the awkward corollary" of the collapse of the time-honored jingle about opposition; but worse things than that have been lived through. If it has been shown that black swans are not found in Africa, and that they are not found anywhere else, what follows in real life is that there are no black swans; but what the old-fashioned logician wishes us to believe is that one or other of the two statements must be false. It is evident that the former is the more reasonable conclusion.

Mr. Stock calls the statement "If a is b , c is d " a complex proposition. It should be called a compound proposition, that is, a proposition about propositions, or, better still, a sequence. The term complex proposition is needed for such as have subjects or predicates that are to be broken up in the course of the reasoning, as when we infer from the statement, "Citizens-students are always revolutionists," the other statement, "All students are revolutionists, or else they are not citizens." The three things which logic considers would then be the concept, the judgment and the sequence, the last being defined to be the statement that one proposition follows from another or from several others, either logically (that is, as inference), or materially (that is, as matter of fact).*

Mr. Stock's introduction, on the whole, is good, though a more psychological account of the concept might have been given; and good, also, is his treatment of extension and intension. But he has a curious idea of what constitutes induction. The concluding from "All the metals which we have examined are fusi-

* The distinction between the logical and the material sequence is very much the same as that between the verbal and the real proposition.

ble" to "All metals are fusible," he gives as an example of what induction is *not*, and then he argues that it is a mistake to talk of inductive reasoning as though it were a species distinct from deductive. The above kind of reasoning he stigmatizes as a "vague instinct," but he forgets that before the days of Aristotle the strictest syllogistic reasoning was vague instinct in everybody's mind, that it is so now in the minds of all but a very few, and that it is so even in their minds in all but a very few hours of their existence. Another "curiosity of literature" Mr. Stock furnishes when he argues, under fallacies, that it is wrong to ask your opponent to grant the point under dispute, because it is violating "the first of the general rules of syllogism, inasmuch as a conclusion is derived from a single premise, to wit, itself."

But the most original part of the book is the treatment of immediate inference as applied to compound propositions, and this, unfortunately, is almost wholly erroneous. In the first place, the treatment is totally inadequate on account of the fact that it applies only to singular propositions. The denial of "No kings are tyrants" is "Some kings are tyrants," not "All kings are tyrants." "If all men are gentle, all women are brave" is the same thing as "If any women are not brave, some men are not gentle," but it is far from being the same thing as "If no women are brave, no men are gentle." But even for singular propositions, in which "The sun shines" and "The sun does not shine," for instance, contradict each other, Mr. Stock is still chock-full of error. His mistakes are due to two causes—to his ignorance of the fact that particular propositions necessarily imply the existence, real or logical, of their terms, and to his ignorance of the fact, admirably set forth by the late Prof. O. H. Mitchell, in the 'Studies in Logic,' that propositions in two dimensions are necessarily six and not four in number. The reason for this latter fact is, that "All rivers are sometimes dry" may mean either that there are times when every river is dry, or that every river is dry at one time or another; and that reasoning cannot proceed with safety until it is known which of these two things is meant. We shall not take time to set forth the effects of these two fundamental errors. It is sufficient to point out that no one but a hardened logician would suppose the statement, "Either operators must be careful, or telegrams will sometimes not be correct," to be the same thing as "Either telegrams are correct, or operators are sometimes not careful"; nor would he suppose that in order to deny the statement, "Either men fight, or tyrants reign," we say "Either men fight, or tyrants do sometimes not reign." It gives one a distinct feeling of dizziness, if not of nausea, to be told that these two statements are the denials of each other. To refute him who says, "Either corruption ceased, or the country went to the dogs," it would be necessary to establish *both* that corruption did not cease *and* that the country did not go to the dogs. It happens that statements in *either* or and in *if* are abbreviated forms for *universal* sequences, and that it is impossible to express with those words the particular sequences which are necessary for denying them. All this is as plain as day-light to any one who has been trained in Symbolic Logic, as well as to any one who has not studied Logic at all.

If this author showed greater strength than he does in plain questions of Logic, more interest would attach to the fact, which appears from an advertisement in the end of the book, that he attributes "importance to spiritualism, and gives a degree of credit to its phenom-

ena." There is an admirable collection of examples.

Days Out of Doors. By Charles C. Abbott. D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 8vo, 323 pp.

IN considering books such as those of Thoreau, John Burroughs, and other literary field-naturalists, the critic mindful of the rights of readers and the aspirations of authors will be led to inquire what is their purpose or function, and to judge any particular book by its efficiency measured in terms of this ideal standard.

It would seem impossible in adopting such a standard to omit the element of accuracy of statement in regard to the facts of nature. For us this must take its place as the essential framework, the indispensable foundation of the literary edifice. The most charming style, the most enthusiastic description of wood and vale, and all that dwell therein, when based on misconception of that Nature the author would teach us to appreciate, become little better than meretricious frippery. In proportion as error enters in, so far must the effort be deemed a failure. Fiction may hold itself untrammelled, may give a seacoast to the kingdom of Bohemia, and lions to the wood of Arden, heedless of the smiles of critics. But when an author says, "Come with me and see the hidden treasures of the pasture, the woodland, or the brook," and we follow, let him beware if he leads us astray. The hope that through his agency we may attune ourselves more truly to the music of insect wings and the clear voices of the birds; that we may read, rightly or wrongly, into the microcosmic tragedy and comedy of the lives which animate the brooks and hedges, something of the pathos or joy which gives interest to our own, and feel more keenly our relationship to the great world of nature—these desires may not be idly trifled with. The ignorance of laymen may preserve them from the disheartening recognition of tinsel among the author's gold; but with those who know the wilds and their inhabitants, wilful or careless misreading of the book of Nature will always present itself as a literary crime.

In previous reviews of Dr. Abbott's books we have endeavored to applaud his enthusiasm and recognize the merits of his style, while deprecating a carelessness of statement, and a tendency to occasional gross inaccuracy, which spoil much of his work for thorough naturalists. In the present work the pleasant diction and the hearty enthusiasm are the same, and previous criticism, though treated with audible contempt by the author, seems to have had the effect of rendering him somewhat more careful. Dr. Abbott seems to feel strongly the existence of a greater amount of intelligence and individuality among animals, even of lowly types, than they are usually given credit for. In this contention we are in sympathy with him; but he does not seem to realize the danger of loose interpretation of the action of animals to the establishment of his hypothesis. The nurse who attributes to a suckling infant reasoning and logic which belong to an adult, commits a similar error, without very serious consequences. But when the attitude of mankind in general towards the inferior creation depends largely on an accurate understanding of their respective positions, the avoidance of a *non-sequitur* has more importance. When the author boldly sets his unsupported opinion against the facts gathered by a host of observers not less careful, earnest, and devoted than himself, he may exemplify his courage, but hardly can be said to exhibit discretion. He

may be right, but his point-blank refusal to use the ordinary means of proving it, in a pure matter of fact, would hardly lead an unprejudiced reader to that conclusion.

The History of Ancient Civilization. A Handbook based upon M. Gustave Ducoudray's 'Histoire sommaire de la Civilisation.' Edited by Rev. J. Verschoyle, M.A. With illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 295.

THE term "history of civilization" is used in two quite different senses. We are most familiar with it from Guizot, who designates by it a philosophical analysis of the great currents of history, with the especial aim to trace their influence upon one another and upon the fortunes and condition of humanity, in the workings of cause and effect. This is what Ozanam and Buckle, for example, have meant by the term, following Guizot. But it may be taken, as by the author of the book before us, as the equivalent of the German *Kulturgeschichte*, which is more descriptive than analytic, giving details of the life of society rather than characterizing it as a whole. This is no doubt as useful a work as the other, and, indeed, must be preliminary to it: there can be no large analysis, of any value, which does not rest upon an exhaustive study of detail. But we should prefer to reserve the term for the other and higher work—the meaning which is most familiar to us.

The present work, indeed, consists so much of detail that it does not fall far short of being a complete history: even political events and military campaigns are given at some length. It consists of three books—The Nations of the East, Greek Civilization, and The Roman World. There are fourteen chapters in all, the scope of which can be judged by the titles of the four chapters in the Greek portion, viz.: The Greek Religion, Greek Politics, Greek Literature and Art, The Diffusion of Greek Genius.

It will be seen that this treatise covers a wide ground, and must rest upon the basis of very varied and extensive scholarship. In general the scholarship is sound and accurate, but it cannot always be trusted. For example, the *princeps senatus* is called (page 230) the "President of the Senate," and is represented as presiding in that body—the duty of the consuls. On the following page the Assembly of the Tribes, presided over by the tribunes, is said to be that "where the whole people took part"; but the tribunes, officers of the plebeians, could preside only in an exclusively plebeian assembly. On page 256 we are told that Gaius Gracchus "had incautiously given up his tribuneship"; there was no more lack of "caution" about it than in Mr. Cleveland's retiring from the Presidency. On page 248 it is said that Hannibal, having expected aid from the Cisalpine Gauls and others, was "everywhere . . . disappointed"; but the Gauls gave him substantial aid—it was the people of Lower Italy that disappointed him. We believe that Otfried Müller's theory of the fundamental antagonism of the Dorian and Ionian races, with Sparta and Athens as their respective types, is not now held in so distinct a form as is presented on page 130. The elegant and luxurious Corinth was a Dorian city; the peculiarities of Sparta were rather Spartan than Dorian.

We note as misprints *Jupiter Olympus* (for *Olympius*, p. 114), and *Dracati* (for *Diacrioi*, p. 134). Most astonishing and inexcusable of all, we have, on page 181, a hexastyle temple in a plain presented for the Parthenon! There is no index.

The Scientific Papers of the late Thomas Andrews, M.D., F.R.S., Vice-President and Professor of Chemistry in Queen's College, Belfast. With a Memoir by P. G. Tait, Sec. R.S.E., and A. Crum Brown, M.D., F.R.S., Professors in the University of Edinburgh. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

THE handsome volume before us contains a complete record of the life-work of a man who labored long and effectively in the border-land between physics and chemistry, but who is perhaps less known in this country than many who have done less valuable service. Profs. Tait and Brown have given us an interesting though somewhat colorless memoir of Dr. Andrews, who seems to have been a man of very sterling worth.

Thomas Andrews was born at Belfast on the 19th of December, 1813. He belonged to the Scotch-Irish race which has produced so many distinguished men, and appears to have been a clever and precocious boy, with an inborn taste and faculty for scientific pursuits. At the age of seventeen he went as a student to Paris, where he worked in the laboratory of Dumas. Returning to Ireland, he spent four years in Trinity College, Dublin. He then studied medicine at Edinburgh, graduating in 1835, and settled in Belfast as a physician, but during the next ten years gave instruction in chemistry, and, though in successful practice, found time for valuable investigations, chiefly on the heat of chemical combination. He soon made the acquaintance of other chemists, notably of Graham and Faraday, with both of whom he became on terms of intimate and lasting friendship. In 1845 Andrews gave up his private practice, and became Vice-President of what is now Queen's College, Belfast. Here his really active scientific life began, and here he worked unceasingly till, in 1885, on the 26th of November, the final summons came.

The place of Thomas Andrews among scientific men, if not among the highest, is still very high. Though his papers were numerous and varied as regards subject, he will be remembered by three prominent investigations. Of these the first is on the heat evolved during chemical action, and it embraces three series of very important papers. Others had worked in the same field of study, but the work of Andrews so far surpassed what had been done before him that we can hardly hesitate to call him the founder of the new science of thermochemistry, at least from the experimental side. Subsequent investigations have shown that Andrews's work was excellent in quality. Good, says a French proverb, is the father of better, and the work of Andrews will in due time be superseded; but we doubt if that time has yet arrived, though far more elaborate and extensive investigations have since appeared.

About the year 1856 Andrews began the second great work of his life, the investigation of ozone, the beautiful discovery of Schönbein. The subject was at the time almost in its infancy. It was not known whether ozone contained only oxygen, or whether it was a higher oxide of hydrogen, or again whether there was not more than one kind of ozone. Andrews proved that ozone, from whatever source derived, is one and the same substance, having identical properties and the same constitution, and is not a compound body, but oxygen in an altered or allotropic condition. The investigation was continued in conjunction with Prof. Tait, and led directly to the true theory of the constitution of the new form of oxygen.

But the crowning work of Andrews's life was that on the continuity of the liquid and gas-

eous states of matter—a work which, if he had done nothing else, would alone have given him a permanent reputation. Cagniard de la Tour in 1822 observed that ether, alcohol, and water, when heated in sealed tubes, were reduced to vapor in a space between two and four times the original volume of the liquid. Faraday, in the following year, liquefied chlorine and some other gases by pressure alone. It was reserved for Andrews, by a careful study of what was then called carbonic-acid gas, to clear up the whole subject of the passage of a liquid into a vapor. For the beautiful and simple methods of investigation and for the purely scientific details of the results, we, of course, refer our readers to the original memoirs. It will be sufficient to state that these results rendered it possible to liquefy oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen gases, and that, without the direct experimental application of Andrews's work, the liquefaction would have been impossible.

Profs. Tait and Crum Brown have done the work of editing most carefully, and have erected a noble monument to the memory of a man of remarkable endowments, who has written his name permanently upon the history of physical science.

The Problem of the Northmen: a Letter to Judge Daly, the President of the American Geographical Society. By Eben Norton Horsford. 4to.

THIS letter appears to have been published because Prof. Horsford was "stung" (as he terms it) by the charge of "perversions" made by Mr. Justin Winsor, in the 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' in a disparaging estimate of the value of Horsford's 'Discovery of America by the Northmen.' Hence his endeavor to place his critic in a ridiculous light. To accomplish this he institutes a comparison between the fruits of his own researches, enumerated under nineteen heads, and the results derived from Mr. Winsor's methods, of which he gives a single illustration, accompanied with his reasons for supposing the result to be erroneous. The Professor's methods are epigrammatically described by himself in the words "Prediction and Fulfilment." The most striking instances upon his list are the discovery of Fort Norumbega (No. 15) and the identification of the remains of Norse houses, huts, fish-pits, etc. (No. 19). Both of these sites are on the Charles River, the former being in Waltham, and the latter just below Mt. Auburn, in Cambridge. Mr. Winsor's conjecture that the ditch at Waltham might possibly mark the site of an early attempt to found the town of Boston, is first contrasted with results like those we have selected above, then characterized as a guess, then demolished in an argument abundantly fortified with italics.

The Massachusetts Historical Society comes in for a share of the Professor's satire. A committee of that society ventured to dissent from some of his conclusions. He alludes to a "tone of conscious infallibility" and "an undertone of recognized authority" in their report, and buries them under the weight of the question, "Is Massachusetts a preserve?"

This is not the place to discuss the questions suggested by the weighty claims made by Prof. Horsford, nor can we at this time attempt to measure the relative values of the methods of research pursued by himself and Mr. Winsor. Mr. Winsor's history is fitly described by Prof. Horsford as a monumental work, and he himself can rest assured that his name will become famous if but a small part of the nineteen results which he enumerates shall be accepted by students of American history (or, as he per-

haps, would prefer to put it, American geography). Before leaving the subject, however, we wish to call attention to some points to which the Professor has briefly alluded, but which he may perhaps treat more fully in the forthcoming papers which he promises.

And, first, is he not in error in seeking to identify Verrazano's C. St. Margarita through the abundance of the daisies in a neighboring field? Bigelow thinks this weed was introduced here from Europe. Reliance upon Thetvet and an analysis of the alleged Indian word Norumbega lie at the foundation of the discovery of Fort Norumbega. Yet we are told that Thetvet was in error in supposing that the fort was the work of the French; and the argument (formerly advanced by J. R. Forster, see 'Nar. and Crit. Hist. of America,' vol. i., page 98, note 13), that Norvegia and Norumbega are different forms of the same word, is held to contain the solution of the problem of the Northmen.

The photographs of the Norse canals with which the letter is illustrated, do not give a clear idea of their character; but such a system as is described seems to militate against Horsford's fort almost as much as against Winsor's conjecture of the intended site for Boston. The minute identification of the site of Leif's house, of Thorfinn's house, of the huts and of the fish pits, on a spot continuously occupied since the day when Saltonstall landed near there, can readily be proved by archaeologists. If Prof. Horsford's confidence is as great as it seems to be, he can afford to wait for the triumph which will follow this proof. The more severe the language of his critics, the greater will be their discomfiture. Meantime, those who do not blindly accept his conclusions will prefer to wait for this proof.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Anderson, Dr. W. G. Light Gymnastics. Effingham Maynard & Co.
- Autobiography of Froebel. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
- Boyesen, Prof. H. H. The Light of Her Countenance. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
- Campbell, W. W. Lake Lyrics, and Other Poems. St. John, N. B.: J. & A. McMillan.
- Christianity and Agnosticism: A Controversy. Papers by Huxley, Mallock, Mrs. Humphry Ward, etc. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.
- Clifford, E. Father Damien. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
- Collar, W. C. Practical Latin Composition. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.10.
- Corelli, Marie. Ardath: The Story of a Dead Self. M. J. Ivers & Co. 50 cents.
- Elwanger, G. H. The Garden's Story: or, Pleasures and Trials of an Amateur Gardener. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.25.
- Fisher, Rev. O. Physics of the Earth's Crust. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co.
- Garnett, Prof. J. M. Elene; Judith; Athelstan; Byrnoth; Anglo-Saxon Poems. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.
- Graham, R. Elementary Algebra. Longmans, Green & Co.
- Grossberg, J. G. Poems. Chicago: Occident Publishing Co. 25 cents.
- Himmel, E. von. The Discovered Country. Boston: Ernst von Himmel Publishing Co.
- Kempis, T. The Imitation of Christ. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. \$3.50.
- Kent's Commentaries, Vol. I. 14th ed. Philadelphia: Blackstone Publishing Co.
- Lange, Helene. Frauenbildung. Berlin: L. Oehmigke.
- Lieb, H. The Foes of the French Revolution; Centralization and Anarchy. Belford, Clarke & Co.
- Macdonald, Rev. D. Oceanic, Linguistic and Anthropological. London: Sampson Low.
- Mahaffy, Prof. J. P., and Bernard, J. H. Kant's Critical Philosophy for English Readers. New ed. Vol. II. The Prolegomena translated, with Notes and Appendices. Macmillan & Co. \$1.50.
- McKenna, S. Ellis Darks: A Novel. Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
- Moses, Prof. B. The Federal Government of Switzerland. Oakland, Cal.: Pacific Press Publishing Co.
- Newell, Jane A. A Reader in Botany. Part I. From Seed to Leaf. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
- Norris, W. E. Miss Shafto. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.
- Nourse, H. S. The Military Annals of Lancaster, Mass., 1740-1865. Lancaster.
- Palmer, J. A., Jr. One Voyage and its Consequences. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. \$1.25.
- Rice, Prof. W. N. Science-Teaching in the Schools. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 15 cents.
- René de Font Jest. Artist and Model. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
- Rockwood, Caroline W. A Masque of Honor: a Saratoga Romance. Funk & Wagnalls.
- Rosenfeld, Mrs. Sidney. 'Twixt Heaven and Earth. United Service Pub. Co. 25 cents.
- Roosevelt, T. The Winning of the West. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$5.
- Ross, A. His Private Character. G. W. Dillingham & Co. 50 cents.
- Shepard, J. Essays and Pen-Pictures. Paris.
- Shepard, J. Pensées et Essais. Paris: Librairie Documentaire.